HIGHER ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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A HIGHER

ENGLISH GRAMMAR

BY

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NEW EDITION
REVISED AND ENLARGED

PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.
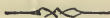
THE present work has been composed with more particular reference to the class of English Composition (attached to the Chair of Logic) in the University of Aberdeen.

While availing myself of the best works on the English Language, I have kept steadily in view the following plan.

Under Etymology, the three departments: 1st, Classification of Words or the Parts of Speech; 2nd, Inflexion; 3rd, Derivation, have been separately discussed. This method I think better adapted for conveying grammatical information than the older one, of exhausting successively each of the Parts of Speech in all its relations.

The practice of explaining the precise meanings of the frequently recurring words of the language, such as pronouns, articles, distributive adjectives, prepositions, and conjunctions, has here been systematically followed out. Words of this description are not numerous. Belonging alike to all subjects and all styles, they are the very hinges of composition. The explanation of them, so long as it is confined to a small compass, is a proper office of the grammarian, although therein he may seem to intrude a little on the province of the lexicographer.

A similar plan is carried out in the second part of Etymology,—Inflexion. Thus, the meanings of the different moods and tenses of the verb are explained as accurately as the writer's knowledge would enable him. Almost all the newer grammars recognise the expediency of this course.

So with regard to Derivation, the meanings of the significant prefixes and suffixes are stated. Under this head, such an account has been given of the sources of the English vocabulary, as in a great measure to dispense with an Etymological dictionary.

One advantage of the plan now described is the simplifying of Syntax, which, when freed from all matters relating to the meanings of words and of inflexions, may fall entirely under the three heads of Concord, Government, and Order or Arrangement of words ; this last part being what in our language most requires the careful attention of the pupil.

For the sake of the accurate definition of the Parts of Speech, as well as for General Syntax, the recently introduced system of the Analysis of Sentences is fully explained. On this subject the method given by Mr. C. P. Mason has been principally followed.

A short account of the English Alphabet is prefixed, but Orthography at large is not entered on in this work. The subjects of Prosody, Figures of Speech, and Style, are also reserved, it being purposed to include them in a separate manual of Rhetoric.

In the discussion of the idioms and constructions of the language, this grammar contains one novelty of importance, namely, the explanation of the precise uses of

the relatives, 'That,' 'Who,' and 'Which'. The distinction between 'that' on the one hand, and 'who' and 'which' on the other, was clearly perceived by our idiomatic writers up to the beginning of the last century; but owing to an unfortunate misapprehension as to the peculiarly English idiom of throwing a preposition to the end of a clause, the relative 'that' is now very little employed in book composition, 'who' and 'which' being made to serve in its stead. For my first knowledge of the real distinction I was indebted, more than twenty years ago, to a communication from Dr. Thomas Clark, then of Marischal College.

In the preparation of this grammar my acknowledgments are more especially due to Mr. C. P. Mason (*English Grammar*), Dr. Angus (*Handbook of the English Tongue*), Mr. Ernest Adams (*Elements of the English Language*), Dr. Latham's Works, Dr. Charles W. Connon (*English Grammar*), Dr. Crombie (*Etymology and Syntax of the English Language*), Dr. Morell (*English Grammar*), Mr. O. Allen Ferris (*English Etymology*), Mr. T. Kerchever Arnold (*English Grammar*), Rev. A. J. D. D'Orsey (*English Grammar*, Chambers's Course), Mr. Brandon Turner (*English Grammar*), Mr. Matthew Harrison (*The English Language*), and Mr. Henry H. Breen (*Modern English Literature*). I am also much indebted to an outline of English Grammar, in *Chambers's Information for the People*, written by Dr. Andrew Findlater, Editor of *Chambers's Encyclopædia*.

PREFACE TO THE PRESENT EDITION.

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In reprinting the Grammar for the present edition, the typography has been remodelled in such a way as to facilitate the ready apprehension of the learner. At the same time, the matter has undergone both revision and enlargement. The effect of the changes has been to increase the bulk by considerably over one-half.

In carrying out the original design of the work, as stated in the foregoing Preface, many additional examples have been introduced to illustrate the numerous phases of our grammatical forms and idioms. This I consider to be the most thoroughly practical aim of an English Grammar.

The chief part of the extension, however, is in relation to the historical development of our grammatical peculiarities. The great advance in the historical study of English in its various forms, from the oldest writings downwards, has been sedulously turned to account. Probably none of the most important authorities have been overlooked. Throughout the work, acknowledgments for particular suggestions are made as they occur. While it would be endless to note every source of information, it is necessary to single out for general acknowledgment the help that has been at all stages derived, whether directly, or by way of suggestion,

from the works of Dr. Richard Morris. Among the other pioneers of Early English investigation, and of philological research at large, have to be mentioned Professor Whitney, Mr. Peile, Rev. W. W. Skeat, and Mr. H. Sweet. The German writers on English Grammar have necessarily been included among the authorities. Nevertheless it was incumbent to avoid overloading the work with this class of illustration, and to select only those most fitted for the student of the Higher Grammar. Whether the line has been properly drawn, must be judged differently by different persons. To do the most for the pupils, within given limits, is the object aimed at; and the class of pupils principally addressed are those that desire, above all other things, to receive aid in attaining the power of English Composition.

Since the Grammar first appeared, I have published, in addition to a Manual of Rhetoric and Composition, two separate Grammatical works : one—A First Grammar, preparatory to the study of the present ; the other —A Companion to the Higher Grammar. In the present revision, care has been taken to keep the work in its proper place, in relation to these two.

A very important adjunct to Grammatical teaching, according to my conception of it, is provided in a recent book, entitled *First Work in English* (Longmans), by Mr. A. F. Murison, formerly English Master in the Grammar School of Aberdeen. This book is a happy combination of Grammar, properly so called, with an exhibition of the wealth of the language in Equivalent Forms. It may be taught both in advance

of the Grammar and along with it ; and, in either case, will largely promote the final end of all instruction in English—to give the pupils a mastery of their own language.

ABERDEEN, *January, 1879.*

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

THE ALPHABET.

I. The Alphabet is the collection of written characters or symbols representing the simple articulate sounds.

The English Alphabet contains twenty-six characters, or letters, but the sounds to be expressed are still more numerous. Moreover, as several sounds have duplicate letters, the available characters are really fewer than twenty-six.

2. Articulate sounds are classed in two divisions as **vowels** and **consonants**.

A vowel sound (Fr. *voyelle*, Lat. *vocālis*, 'sounding') is voice issuing from the mouth clear and free; a sound that can be uttered alone, as *ah, ee, oo*. If any part of the mouth get in the way and check the utterance, the new sound is called a *consonant* sound. The name 'consonant' (Lat. *con*, 'together', *sonant-*, 'sounding.') was given as indicating that the peculiar sound cannot be produced alone, but only together with some vowel.

Vowels and consonants, 'though their distinction is of the highest importance in phonetics, are by no means separate and independent systems, but only poles, as it were, in one unitary series, and with a doubtful or neutral territory between them; they are simply the opener and the closer sounds of the alphabetic system'. (Whitney).

3. The Vowels.—The characters available for the vowel sounds are *five*,—a, e, i, o, u.

When we go back in the history of our alphabet as far as we can, we find **three early vowels,** from which the others have come by various modifications.

These are: **a** (which has been doubled, or lengthened, in 'f*a*r', 'f*a*ther', &c.; and which is still kept in Scotch and German 'm*a*n'), **i** (as in *i*t, b*i*t, f*i*t, &c.), and **u** (as in 'b*u*ll', 'f*u*ll', &c.).

a ('f*a*ther', Scot. and Germ. 'm*a*n') is the sound heard when voice issues unimpeded from open mouth and throat, the back of the tongue being drawn well down; *i* (f*ee*t, f*i*t) is produced when the tongue is raised almost to the middle of the palate; *u* (f*oo*l, f*u*ll) is then formed by again withdrawing the tongue a little and rounding the lips.

The union of *a* and *i* produces the diphthong heard in 'f*i*ne', 'm*i*ne',—what we call "long *i*". Between *a* and *i* is **e** (á, è), heard in 'th*ey*', 'p*ai*n', 'f*a*te', 'th*e*n', 'p*e*n'; the long sound being really a diphthong. Between *a* and this *e* is **a** in 'b*a*t', 'c*a*t', 'f*a*t', 'm*a*n', &c. Similarly, between *a* and *u* stands **o** (n*o*te, *o*bey); the sound being really a diphthong. And between *a* and this *o* stands the long sound— call it **ō**—heard in 'a*ll*', 'A*u*stria', 'a*u*stere'; the corresponding short sound is heard in 'wh*a*t', 'n*o*t'.

u (b*u*t, c*u*t, &c.) is probably a guttural vowel, though rather indefinite: "the specific quality" of it, says Prof. Whitney, "is due to a dimming action along the whole mouth rather than an approach at a definite point or points," and it is "thus a duller kind of *a*". When followed by *r* (h*u*rt, b*u*rn), *u* seems to modify its sound; an apparent change probably due to the peculiar pronunciation of the *r*.

Taking the vowels as we find them in use, **a practical phonetic representation** might be arranged as follows.

Accented Vowels. —A vowel sound, uttered clearly and with stress of voice, is said to be *accented.*

The accent may fall either on the vowel alone, or on the vowel together with a consonant next following it.

á, é, í, ó, ú, may represent the **long** vowel sounds heard in 'l*ay*, l*ee*, l*ie*, l*o*! l*oo*'.

These exemplify such as receive the accent exclusively on the vowel.

à, è, ì, ò, ù, may represent the **short** vowel sounds in 'sat, set, sit, not, nut'.

These exemplify such as receive the accent on the consonant following as well as on the vowel.

Independently of the different kind of accent, these ten vowels are each distinct from the others; they make up ten separate vowels.

ê, î, û, may represent the vowel sounds heard in 'been, pride, pull'.

In some words the accented long vowel sounds are pronounced with force, quickly, and so as to include in the accent a consonant that comes after the vowel. This happens in the case of the fifth long vowel 'û', in several words, as in 'pull, full', compared with 'pool, fool'; which may be symbolised thus: 'pûl, fûl'; 'púl, fúl'. The second long vowel 'ê' undergoes a like change of accent in the word 'been', which is pronounced 'bên'; probably too in several other words; but this particular form of accent has not been much studied heretofore. The third long vowel 'î' becomes 'î', that is to say, carries its accent to the next consonant, as in the word 'pride', compared with the words 'pry', 'pried'; which three words may be symbolised thus: 'prîd, pri, príd'. The like happens with this vowel in a good many words; but as yet no care has been taken to discriminate syllables thus accented.

ō and ā may represent the vowel sounds heard in 'saw (sō), sought (sōt); palm (pām), far'.

Accented short vowel sounds have the vowel sound prolonged, in certain words, without any of the accent falling on a following consonant. This happens particularly in the case of 'ò', the fourth of those vowels, as may be seen on comparing the words 'sot, saw, sought' (which may be symbolised 'sòt, sō, sōt'). 'à' is not prolonged; but the older and broader 'a' remaining in Sc. and Germ. 'man', Sc. 'can', Germ. 'kann', &c., is prolonged in 'father, fār, ārt', &c.

The other three accented short vowel sounds (è, ì, ù) are not thus prolonged, excepting 'è', which occasionally becomes 'ē', as in the expression 'vèri wèl—vēri!'

Vowels unaccented.—**ă, ĕ, ĭ, ŏ, ŭ,** may respectively stand for the vowels *á, é, í, ó, ú,* when out of accent.

Compare 'dá, bìrthdă; éz, ĕjèkt; fín, ĭdéa; ópium, ŏbá; krúel, krŭsádz'.

a, e, i, o, u, may respectively stand for the vowels
à, è, ì, ò, ù, when out of accent.

Compare 'pălăs, paláshial; pèt, lìmpet; pìt, kòkpit; pòlitik,
poltrún; ùp, uphév'.

Unaccented *ê, î, û* can hardly be said to differ from
unaccented *é, í, ú,* and may be represented in the same
way by **ĕ, ĭ, ŭ.**

'Hàv yŭ èver bĕn dhár?' 'Mĭt hé nòt trí az wèl az yú?'
'Fŭlfìl, hàndfŭl'.

ö and **ä** may represent *ō* and *ā* when out of accent.

Compare 'ōtum, ötùmnal; ōgust, ögùst: ārt, ärtìstik;
ārteri, ärtérial'.

Diphthongs.—The chief diphthongs are **ou** and **oi.**

ow or **ou** in the words 'n*ow*' and 'n*ou*n', and **oy** or **oi** in
the words 'b*oy*', b*oi*l', are compounds of other vowels; in the
words 'how' and 'noun', of 'ā' and 'ŭ'; in 'boy' and 'boil',
of 'ō' and 'ĕ'.

eu, ew, ū (= yú) may also be regarded as a diphthong, *ĕ + ú*:
'*Eu*rope', 'f*ew*', 'f*ue*l'.

â, î, ô, which are fundamentally diphthongs, are regarded as
substantially simple long vowels.

When out of accent, the diphthongs may be represented thus:
oŭ or **ow̆, oĭ** or **oy̆, yŭ.**

W and Y. **w** and **y** are sometimes called consonants,
sometimes **semi-vowels.**

In any case 'w' is 'ŭ', and 'y' is 'ĕ', each quickly pro-
nounced before another vowel; as in the words '*we*' and '*way*'
(ŭ-é, ŭ-á = wé, wá), and in the words '*ye*', '*yea*' (ĕ-é, ĕ-á
= yé, yá).

Wh represents *w* modified by the aspirate *h*. The pronuncia-
tion remains in accordance with the old form *hw*.

ú and *ŭ* often have the sound of *y* inserted before them; as
in '*ty*ún (tune), f*y*ú (few), h*y*úman (human), h*y*ŭmán (humane)'.
We have just seen that this compound sound may be classed
with the diphthongs.

Although, as already correctly stated, 'á' is a different vowel from 'à', as is 'é' from 'è', 'í' from 'ì', &c., yet it is an important observation that the individuals of each of these couples of vowels are exchangeable with each other in kindred English words, sometimes accented, sometimes unaccented, as may be seen from a few examples : náshon, nàshonal, nàshonàliti ; derív, dèriváshon, derìvativ ; réal, reálíz, rĕáliti ; ĭdéa, ĭdéalíz, ĭdĕáliti ; rál, wá, rálwă ; repyút, rèpyútabl ; párent, parèntal ; papă, pápal ; máson, masònic ; contìnyŭ, còntinyúiti ; théatr, thĕátrical ; Cănada, Canádian ; Pàriz, Parìzian ; revél, rèveláshon ; replí, rĕplicáshon ; repét, rèpetìshon ; àccent, accènt ; Gèrman, Germànic ; Brìtan, Britània, Britànic, Brìtish ; lànd, Scòt, Scòtland ; lábor, labórius ; östér, östèrity (austere, austerity) ; ōspis, öspìshus (auspice, auspìcious) ; pòlitik, pŏlìtical.*

4. The Consonants, and their sounds, are divided according to the part of the mouth uttering them and according to the concurrence of breath or voice from the throat.

The Labials or Lip-consonants (Lat. *labia*, lips) are p, b; f, v; m.

The consonants, *p* and *b*, are called *mute*, *explosive*, or *momentary* labials ; the lips completely check the emission of of breath or voice (*mute*), and just when they are re-opened these consonantal sounds burst forth (*explosive*), but are heard only for an instant (*momentary*). *f* and *v* are called *fricative* or *continuous* labials ; the passage is not quite closed and the breath pushes or rubs its way through (*fricative*), while the sound can in each case be kept up for a little (*continuous*). *f* is very nearly *p* with an added breathing (*p + h*, *ph*), and *v* is nearly an aspirated *b* (*b + h*, *bh*). In strictness, *f* and *v* are *dentil*abials ('tooth-and-lip' consonants), not pure labials ; for the upper teeth come down upon the lower lip, and breath or voice is expelled between these.

Again, the members of each of these pairs also differ from each other in this way. When the lips close or open for *p*, they check or liberate *breath* ; when they close or open for *b*, they

* This scheme of vowel symbolisation, *which has the peculiar advantage of indicating* at once the accents and the vowels *of words,* was communicated to me by Dr. Clark, who considered it likely to be useful, not only in grammatical discussions, but in English pronouncing dictionaries and in the vowel part of any system of phonetic spelling that may be hereafter attempted for the English language. I have made one or two very slight deviations from the original form, for the sake of uniformity and simplicity.

check or liberate *voice*. Hence *p* has been variously called a *surd*, *breathed*, *hard*, *sharp*, or *strong* sound; and *b* has been called a *sonant*, *voiced*, *soft*, *flat*, or *weak* sound. The two first names in each case are the most appropriate, seeing that they describe the essential point of difference.

In sounding *m*, the lips are aided by the nose. Hence *m* is called also a *nasal* consonont (Lat. *nāsus*, the nose). It is continuous.

The Dentals or Tooth-consonants (Lat. *dent-*, 'tooth') are t, d ; th, dh ; l, n, r.

t (surd) and *d* (sonant) are momentary; all the rest are continuous. *th* (as in 'smi*th*', '*th*in') is surd,—aspirated *t* ; *dh* (as in 'boo*th*', '*th*ine') is sonant,—aspirated *d* : they are formed by expelling breath and voice between the tongue and the upper teeth. *n* is also nasal. *l* is sounded by directing the point of the tongue to the boundary of teeth and palate, and passing voice by the sides of it ; *r*, by passing voice over middle and point of the tongue. (For Scotch and French *r*, the tongue vibrates strongly against the palate).

The Palatals, or Palate-consonants, are s, z ; sh, zh.

The palatals are all continuous. *s* and *sh* (= aspirated *s*) are surd ; *z* and *zh* (= aspirated *z*, the middle consonant heard in 'vision', that is 'vizhon') are sonant.

From their *hissing* sound, these have also been called '*sibilants*'.

The Gutturals or Throat-sounds (Lat. *guttur*, the throat) are k, g ; (kh, gh), h ; ng.

k (surd) and *g* (sonant) are momentary ; the others are continuous. The aspirated *kh*, *gh* do not occur now in English ; *h*, a softened sound, or mere guttural breathing, alone remains. *ng* is nasal.

m, *n*, *l*, *r*, and *ng* have also been called '*liquids*', from their flowing continuous sound. But this is obviously an arbitrary limitation of the name, and does not carry with it any advantage.

It will be seen from the above list, that our alphabet is deficient in characters for expressing the consonant sounds *th* (*th*in), *dh* (*th*ine), *sh* (*sh*ame), *zh* (a*z*ure), *ng* (ri*ng*). It is further redundant as regards the letters *c* (represented by *s* or *k*), *q* (the same as *k* before *u*), and *x* (either *ks* or *gz*). Also *j*, as representing a compound sound, would be superfluous, if we had the elementary character *zh* (a*z*ure). At present it is a convenient contraction for *dzh* (the sonant corresponding to the surd compound *tsh* or *ch*).

ETYMOLOGY.

Etymology is the study of individual words. It is in contrast to Syntax, which is the joining of words in sentences.

Individual words may be viewed in three different ways :

First, we may divide them into classes, or kinds, and explain the purposes served by each kind. This is to give the *classification* of words, or the Parts of Speech.

Secondly, we may consider the changes that they undergo when they enter into composition, as in the plurals of nouns, the comparison of adjectives, &c. This is Inflection.

Thirdly, we may examine the growth and structure of words. This is called Derivation.

Before entering upon the first division,—the Parts of Speech, it is requisite to examine the nature of the Sentence.

THE SENTENCE.

I. Speech is made up of separate sayings, each complete in itself, and containing several words; and these sayings are **Sentences.**

Any complete meaning is a sentence.

A single word does not give a meaning: the words, 'John', 'street', 'star', 'see', 'escape', used separately, do not tell us anything. We need at least two words to convey any information: 'John stands', is a full meaning. The cases where even two words are sufficient are not very numerous; most meanings are expressed by more than two words: 'he is in the street', 'I see the star', 'the guilty cannot always escape'.

Any two words, or more, will not give a meaning—that is, will not make a sentence: 'heavy gold', 'thunder lightning', 'all good men themselves', are not sentences. There is a particular kind of word needed to complete the declaration or meaning: 'gold *is* heavy', 'thunder *follows* lightning', 'all good men *deny* themselves'.

2. The usual and regular form of the Sentence is **to declare** that something is or is not—to give an affirmation or a denial.

For *affirming*, we have the form seen in the examples: 'the sun is risen', 'gold is heavy', 'men will die'.

For *denying*, we have such forms as 'the sun is not risen', 'feathers are not heavy', 'men will not live always', 'the report is not true', 'a brave soldier will not desert his post'. Such forms differ from the foregoing only in the addition of the negative word 'not'. The distinction between the kinds is of the greatest importance in regard to our belief and conduct, but is seldom considered in Grammar.

Of sentences that do not assume one or other of these forms, there are two classes—imperative and interrogative.

The *Imperative* sentence, instead of declaring something, commands, directs, or entreats: 'clear the way', 'turn to the right', 'spare his life'.

The *Interrogative* sentence asks a question: 'who will go with me?' 'Can any one disclose the mystery?'

Both the imperative and the interrogative sentence may be regarded as *shortened* forms of the usual, or declaratory sentence : 'clear the way', is the same as 'I command you to clear the way'. For 'spare his life', we should say, in full, 'I (or we) entreat you to spare his life'. The interrogative form is a short way of saying 'I ask', or 'I wish to know something'.

3. Subject and Predicate.— Every Sentence may be divided into **two parts.**

One part is **the name of the thing spoken about,** and is called **the Subject.**

The other part is **what is said about the Subject,** and is called **the Predicate.**

'Lions roar', is a complete sentence. The thing spoken about, the Subject, is 'lions'; what is said about lions, the Predicate, is that they 'roar'. (The declaration is affirmative.) Here subject and predicate are each expressed by a single word.

'Unsupported bodies fall to the ground'.

Subject.	*Predicate.*
Unsupported bodies	—fall to the ground.

Any person that understands the meaning of this sentence knows that what is spoken about is expressed in the two words, 'unsupported bodies'; and that what is said or declared about unsupported bodies is expressed in the four words, 'fall to the ground'.

Thus, although a great many words may be used in conveying a single meaning, we can always separate those that give the subject from those that give the predicate.

Subject.	*Predicate.*
A small leak	—will sink a great ship.
The pain of death	—is most in apprehension.
They that have the greatest gifts, and are of the greatest usefulness	—are the most humble.

Inverted order.—Although the general rule in sentences of affirmation and denial is to place the subject first, *the order is sometimes inverted :* 'short was his triumph', 'how long he will remain, no one can say'; 'it is a law of nature, that disuse diminishes the capabilities of things'. On restoring the regular order, these may be written thus :—

Subject.	*Predicate.*
His triumph	—was short.
No one	—can say how long he will remain.
It, (namely), that disuse diminishes the capabilities of things,	—is a law of nature.

Compound and Contracted Sentences.—When a sentence cannot be reduced to a single subject and a single predicate, it is because *two or more sentences are put together*, which occurs not unfrequently : ' The sun gives light by day, and the moon by night ', contains two subjects—' the sun ', ' the moon ', and two predicates agreeing in the main action, ' give light ', but differing in the manner of the action, ' by day ', ' by night '. This is a *compound sentence, partially contracted.*

The following are additional examples :—' John and David are here ; John is at the door, and David at the window '. ' The river rose, burst the embankment, and flooded the field ' (one subject and three predicates). ' Gold is a metal, yellow, heavy, incorrodible, of great value, and used for coin and for ornament.'

4. The Naked Sentence. Parts of Speech : Noun and Verb. A Sentence containing only two words may be called a **naked sentence.** It contains the kinds of words absolutely essential to a meaning, and no others.

These words are, in Grammar, different **Parts of Speech.**

' Peter comes ', ' fishes swim ', ' time flies ', ' prudence forbids ', are the shortest possible sentences ; they are meanings given in the most naked form. One of the words in each expresses by itself the subject—' Peter ', ' fishes ', ' time ', ' prudence ' ; the second word in each is a complete predicate—' comes ', ' swim ', ' flies ', ' forbids '.

The words for the subjects are, in Grammar, mainly of one kind or class, or one part of speech—the **Noun** : ' Peter ', ' fishes ', ' time ', ' prudence ', are nouns.

The words of the predicates are, in Grammar, always of one class, or one part of speech—the **Verb** : ' comes ', ' swim ', ' flies ', ' forbids ', are verbs.

The predicate word, or verb, has various peculiarities. Among others we may notice here, as never absent, the signification of *time ;* the fact or thing declared is always given as happening in a certain division of time—present, past, future, or, in many cases, during all time : ' Peter comes ' (present time), ' James withdrew ' (past time), ' fishes swim ' (all time).

From a naked or skeleton sentence we may consider all other sentences to be derived, being, as it were, clothed or filled out, or expanded by additions ; and most of the words used for this end belong to other grammatical classes, or different parts of speech.

5. Clothing or Filling out. Object.—When the Predicate is **clothed or enlarged** by naming an **object** acted on, the word used is still most frequently a **Noun** :—'the Greeks worshipped *Apollo'*: 'fools waste *opportunities* '.

'Apollo' and 'opportunities' are nouns. They might serve as the *subjects* of sentences : '*Apollo* was the oracular god ', '*opportunities* occur '.

Transitive and Intransitive Verbs.—This expansion, therefore, does not bring out any new part of speech ; the object, like the subject, is a noun, or some form equivalent to a noun. But we thereby determine a distinction among verbs : those that are thus followed by an object are called *transitive* verbs, because the action is supposed to *pass over* to some particular thing. Those that give a complete meaning without an object ('the sun *shines* ', ' time *flies* ') are *intransitive*.

Chief uses of the Noun.—The noun is not confined to the subject or the object of the sentence ; it may occur in some other situations ; but the chief way to test a noun is to see whether it makes sense when used as a subject or an object. '*John* comes ', ' send *John* ', make sense ; ' *will* comes ', ' send *burned* ', are nonsense ; ' will ' and ' burned ' are not nouns.

6. Enlargement of Subject and Object. The Adjective.—The Subject is enlarged by **words that modify its meaning** : as '*few* men live to be old '; ' *all high* mountains are imposing '. The word ' few ' joined to the noun ' men ', to modify its meaning, and the words ' all ', ' high ', joined to ' mountains ', are words of a distinct grammatical class, or Part of Speech, and are called **Adjectives**.

The Object of a Sentence, when a Noun, may be enlarged or modified in the same way : ' I see *bright* fires '; ' he commanded *many large* armies '; ' they

climbed *the loftiest* peak'. 'Bright', 'many', 'large', 'the', 'loftiest', are Adjectives.

In both places the adjective has the same use—to limit the number of things expressed by a noun, and increase the meaning; 'few' limits the class 'men' to a smaller number; 'high' limits the class mountain, and increases or adds to the meaning or attributes of the class; the things spoken of have everything belonging to the class mountain, and something besides, namely, what is expressed by the word 'high'.

7. Enlargement of Predicate. The Adverb.

— The Predicate may be enlarged or extended by **words expressing some attributes or circumstances of action:**—'they marched *steadily*'; 'bring John *here*'; 'the fruit will *soon* be ripe'.

The words 'steadily', 'here', 'soon', are of the class, or Part of Speech, called **the Adverb.**

The adverb modifies, limits, or varies the action of the predicate, or adds something to its signification; the action 'marched' is qualified by the meaning 'steadily', which is something more than mere marching. 'The fruit will be ripe' is changed in meaning by the word 'soon', which limits the *time* of the ripening. The word 'here' gives the *place* where John is to be brought to; it is an adverb of place.

These words are called *adverbs*, because they are attached *to verbs*, or to the essential word in the predicate of the sentence.

8. Many-worded Adverbs.

—The Adverb, instead of being one word, may be made up of two or more words: 'they marched *in order*'; 'send John *to town*'; 'the apples will be ripe *in a week*'. The expressions, 'in order', 'to town', 'in a week', are called **Adverbial Phrases.**

These phrases serve the very same purpose as the single-worded adverbs: 'in order' states the *manner* of marching; 'to town' gives the *place* where John is to go to, being an adverbial phrase of place; 'in a week' is an adverbial phrase of *time*.

9. The Preposition.

— The Adverbial Phrase usually consists of a Noun, and *another kind of word* connecting the Noun with the Predicate Verb. In the

phrase 'to town', 'town' is a Noun; 'to' is a word of a distinct class, or Part of Speech, named **the Preposition.**

The prepositions are few in number; they are mostly short words, as 'to', 'from', 'by', 'in', 'on', 'over', 'under', 'with', 'against'. Their original meaning is *direction* or *situation.* Applied to a verb of motion, or action, they indicate the direction of the movement, which, however, is in most cases vague or incomplete, unless some object is named; 'come *to*' is not intelligible without a place or object named; 'come to *school*', 'we ran to *the wood*'.

10. The Conjunction.—When two distinct sentences are united by a connecting word, this is of the class, or Part of Speech, called **the Conjunction:** 'the sun rose, *and* the clouds dispersed'; 'individuals die, *but* the race is perpetual'; 'I will come *if* I can'.

'And', 'but', and 'if', are unlike any of the other parts of speech; they are conjunctions. They are nearly allied to, but yet distinct from, prepositions.

Sentences often follow one another without any connecting words at all.

11. The Pronoun.—The Subject or the Object of a Sentence may be given by a word of *reference:* 'John said *he* would go'; 'launch the boat, and take *it* across the river'. Such words are of the class, or Part of Speech, named **the Pronoun.**

'John' is a noun; it names a person by his own name: 'he' is a pronoun, having no meaning of itself, but referring back to the person 'John' previously named. The word would equally apply to any person mentioned in the sentence or clause that goes before.

In like manner a 'boat' names a thing by its own name: when we hear the word we know what is meant. 'It' has no meaning of itself; we must look back to see what thing was last mentioned, namely, a 'boat'. If the thing last mentioned had been 'tree', the word 'it' would have meant a tree.

The pronouns are a small class of words, of very wide application. They are called pronouns, or *for*-nouns, because they serve instead of nouns. After a person or thing is once mentioned, a second mention may be avoided by using one of the pronouns, which are usually much shorter words than nouns.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

THE NOUN.

Definition.

I. The Noun is defined by the following marks :—

I. It may be the Subject or the Object of a Sentence : 'the *gardener* pruned the *tree*'.

Here 'gardener', the subject of the sentence, and 'tree', the object, are nouns.

There are other words besides nouns that may be the subject or the object of a sentence. These are pronouns, and the infinitives of the verb. '*He* wished *to go*', '*they* like *reading*', '*talking* fatigues *us*', are sentences whose subjects and objects are not nouns, but pronouns or infinitives : 'he', 'they', 'us', pronouns ; 'to go', 'reading', 'talking', infinitives.

Hence some additional characters are necessary to distinguish the noun from the e other parts of speech. The following mark distinguishes it from the pronoun.

2. II. The Noun is the name of the thing itself, while the Pronoun names by means of a reference.

Thus, 'John', 'kingdom', 'virtue', are the names of things themselves ; 'I', 'he', 'it', 'they', 'who', are names that have no meaning, except by referring to something otherwise pointed out or understood.

'*Augustus* found *Rome* built of brick, and *he* left *it* built of marble.' The subject and the object of the first sentence, 'Augustus', 'Rome', are nouns ; they name the actual objects. The subject and the object of the second sentence, 'he', 'it', are pronouns ; they name by referring back, one to Augustus, the other to Rome.

To distinguish the noun from any part of the verb, we resort to the test of inflexion.

3. III. **The Noun is changed or inflected** for Number, Case, and Gender. The Infinitives of the Verb are not inflected at all. We change 'man' into 'men', 'men's' (Number, Case); 'lion' into 'lioness' (Gender).

Neither the active infinitive forms, 'to love', 'loving', nor the passive infinitives, 'to be loved', 'being loved', are now changed in any way. Other parts of the verb are extensively changed; the chief purpose being to signify *time*. There is a change for *number;* there is none for case or for gender.

All nouns are not changed for number, case, and gender; sometimes the meaning, and sometimes the usage, would forbid the change. A large proportion have the plural number; only a few are inflected for case; still fewer are inflected for gender.

The unchangeable nouns, such as 'goodness', 'gold', must be known from their character and meaning. 'Goodness' is known by the ending 'ness' to be what is called an Abstract noun. 'Gold', 'silver', 'steel', are known by their meaning to be names, or nouns, of Material, which from their nature cannot be plural, and cannot be changed for gender.

On the other hand, the infinitives are limited to a few forms: 'to write', 'to have written', 'writing', 'having written', &c.

Classes of Nouns.

4. Nouns are divided into **five** classes.

I. **Proper, Singular, Meaningless Nouns:** 'Rome'. 'Jordan', 'Sirius', 'Pharaoh'.

These are called *proper*, because they belong to some one individual thing or person. For the same reason, they are *singular*. 'Rome' is the proper and peculiar name of a single city.

They are called *meaningless*, in contrast to the next class.

Examples of Proper Nouns.

Persons: Noah, Aristotle, Cæsar, Luther, Shakespeare.
Places, Buildings, Machines, notable Objects: Europe, Mediterranean, Lebanon, Thames, Malakoff, Mons Meg, Koh-i-noor.
Days, Months, Festivals: Monday, May, Christmas.
Branches of Knowledge: Algebra, Physics, Botany, Heraldry.
Diseases: Catarrh, Typhus, Pleurisy, Aneurism, Diphtheria.

5. II. **Common, General, Significant Nouns:** 'city', 'river', 'star', 'king'.

Whereas the name 'Rome' applies only to one object, the name 'city' is common to many objects; it is a name for Rome, Paris, London, York, and a great many others. The reason of its being used for all these objects in common, is that they *resemble one another*: Rome, Paris, and London, are things of the same kind, they are inhabited places, each under one authority; to them, and to all such, the name 'city' is applied. It is thus *common* to a great number of things, instead of being restricted to one; it is *general*, or the name of a kind or class, instead of being individual; it is *significant*, or has a meaning, because when applied to any thing, it tells us that that thing has a certain character. To say that Jerusalem is a 'city', is to say that it resembles Rome, Paris, London, Dublin, &c., and possesses the known characters common to all these.

A proper noun is a mere mark or sign to designate a thing, and no more; 'Jordan' is a mark for a particular object, and, if never used for anything else, it recalls that object alone. A common noun, 'river', is a name and something more; it tells us what sort of thing is named : 'a body of running water, rising in the mountains, and flowing to the sea'. 'River' is thus general, while 'Jordan' is particular : the one has a signification, or is significant, the other has no signification, it is meaningless.

Many, probably almost all, proper nouns were originally significant, conveying some particular meaning. This was first of all pre-eminently connected with a single individual, and then came by-and-by to be applied to this individual alone. In the long run, this signification was dropt, and the name was regarded simply as the distinctive designation of the particular object. Whatever meaning 'Jordan' may have had at first, it is nothing more now than a mark to know a certain geographical object by, it implies no qualities whatever. 'Moses' is a meaningless name, serving to point out a great Jewish leader and lawgiver; it does not necessarily recall the fact of his having been *drawn out* of the water, and it may be applied at will in new cases without reference to that fact. 'Ehrenbreitstein', 'broad stone of honour', has passed to the stage of a mere geographical name, and as such is purely meaningless.

The most characteristic proper nouns are those that have been used for one thing alone, and have never been applied to anything else. Such are a few names of persons and places, as (in all probability) Nebuchadnezzar, Rome, Sahara, Gibraltar. These are proper, singular, and meaningless, in the full sense of the terms; *proper*, as the exclusive property of a single object; *singular*, for the same reason; *meaningless*, because, unlike the names—king, city, desert, port—they convey no

information about the things, assign no properties, qualities, or class likenesses of the objects.

Owing to the great multitude of things we have to find names for, we seldom leave a name in the exclusive possession of one thing. The first known use of the word 'Hercules' was to name a great fabulous hero, of immense bodily strength and courage. It has, however, been largely applied to other persons, neither fabulous nor heroes, many of them very feeble and very timid. Still, had it been confined to human beings, it might have been so far a common, general, or significant name, as to signify that the object named is a man. But, for want of separate names, it has been used for ships, dogs, horses, railway engines and other machines—things with no resemblance to one another. Hence, although applied to many things, it is not a common, general, or significant name; when we hear it, without knowing anything further, we do not know whether it means a man, a ship, a dog, or a machine.

When we hear the name 'Wellington' alone, we do not know whether it indicates a man, a town, a colony, a bridge, a street, a ship, or a pair of boots.

'China' is a proper name; it has, however, two applications, but there is no similarity between them; it is a country, and it is a name for a peculiar manufacture. So 'Nankin' has two uses; but it is still a proper name.

'Davy' is the proper name for a man, and the common or significant name for a miner's lamp.

'Lincoln' is a proper name, but is not confined to one single object; still, it is not a common and significant name, because there is no similarity maintained in applying it. It is used for places and for persons, and we should not be surprised if it were used for horses, or for machines.

It is in naming persons that we are most under the necessity of using the same name for many individuals; thousands of persons are called by the same name, 'Brown'; yet Brown, although so widely applied, is not a common, general, significant name. There is nothing common to all the Browns, and distinguishing them from all the Smiths, the Johnsons, or the Owens. As names of clans or families, these might indicate common descent, and be to that extent class names; but, as there are many circumstances that lead to the shifting of names of persons, we are not sure even of this amount of similarity.

As it is the intention of those names to signify individuals, and not classes, they have to be supplemented by additions that render them, in their own sphere, strictly proper, singular names. In a small village there is probably only one man called 'William Brown', hence that name is a proper, singular,

as well as meaningless name.   To make proper names still more decisively individual, triple or quadruple designations may be used.   Combinations of two—William Brown, George Brown, David Smith—must often recur ; combinations of three would be much rarer—William George Brown, David Samuel Smith, are comparatively infrequent.   When the middle names are surnames, and not of the more limited class of ordinary Christian names—as John Stanley Smith—they are still less likely to apply to a plurality of persons.   When we make a combination that is used for only one person, present or past, that combination is, in the strictest sense, proper, singular, and meaningless.

6. Singular and Significant Names.—Some Singular objects have names that are significant ; as ' Providence ', for the Deity, ' Nature ', ' Fate '.

These are very rare instances, and belong rather to the poetic and rhetorical employment of language than to the ordinary uses of words.   The word ' providence ' is significant because it is applicable to many things, in virtue of their resemblance ; the act or quality of ' providence ' is shown on many occasions.   As a moral virtue it may be manifested by a number of different persons.   But, by what is called a figure of speech, the word has a special application to the one Being that shows the quality in an extraordinary or infinite degree.

A singular object may have a significant designation, when several significant names are joined together, so as to apply to only one person or thing.   'Sovereign' is general and significant ; it applies to many persons : ' our sovereign ' singles out one ; the adjective ' our ', by its limiting force, selects from the class one individual.

It is the function of the adjective thus to narrow or limit a class of things, and the limitation is sometimes pushed to individuality.   ' Powerful sovereign ' is more limited than ' sovereign ', but still the designation is not singular ; neither is ' reigning sovereign '.   ' *The* reigning sovereign ' is singular, through the peculiar force of the article ' the ', which is, by pre-eminence, an individualising word, as will be afterwards explained.

7. Class Names are the same as General and Significant Names.

The objects of natural history are arranged in classes ; as rocks, metals, palms, birds, apes.   So, in geography, there are the classes—seas, mountains, rivers, plains, deserts.   Many other objects are spoken of as classes, as the nobles, lawyers,

traders. These names are all general and significant; they are the names common to a great number of individuals, in virtue of resemblance or similarity. All the bodies called 'metals' resemble each other in a number of points; 'nobles' have peculiarities in common, which are absent from other classes of the community.

8. III. Collective Nouns: as 'nation', 'regiment', 'fleet', 'senate', 'shoal'.

The Collective noun is the name of a great number of individuals taken as one mass, and spoken of as a single object. A 'nation' contains thousands, and perhaps millions, of individual men and women; but it is spoken of as one object, because they are supposed to go all together. A 'fleet' contains many ships, all under one command, and keeping together for one purpose. 'The fleet *was* victorious', means that the ships combined to gain a victory.

Other examples.—Parliament was opened by the Queen. The *clan* was mustered. The *mob* was dispersed. The Spanish *Armada* was unsuccessful. The *meeting* is large. The *jury* finds the prisoner guilty. The *court* has passed sentence. The *society* is soon to meet. The *board* is about to issue regulations. The *committee* was not called.

Collective names are also general and significant names; for there may be a number of collections of the same things. There are many fleets, armies, regiments, clans, hosts, swarms; and as the individual fleets, armies, &c., resemble each other, the names are general and significant. Hence all these nouns are both collective and general.

Nouns of Multitude.—Sometimes when the collective noun is used, the things are spoken of individually and separately, as if it were a class noun. 'The *jury* were kept without food', means that the *jurymen* were so kept; because the action of taking food cannot apply to a whole body collectively, but only to men individually. These collective nouns are sometimes called nouns of MULTITUDE. They occasion difficulties in Syntax, as will be afterwards explained (SYNTAX, *Concord of Subject and Verb*).

Peasantry, tenantry, youth, nobility, sisterhood, are examples of collective nouns that may also be nouns of multitude.

9. IV. Material Nouns: as 'iron', 'clay', 'wheat', 'water', 'snow'.

'Iron' is the name for all the iron existing everywhere, viewed as a single collection. 'Water' is the name for all water.

Material nouns have thus a resemblance to collective nouns. The difference is, that the material masses are more continuous, or less regularly divided than collections of objects. Compare 'water' with 'fleet'; 'iron', 'coal', 'sand', with 'artillery' (collective).

Again, *the material noun must be singular*, because there cannot be two complete or exhaustive collections of one material: 'silver' is all existing silver. Unlike the collective noun, the material noun cannot be a class name. Different materials may be united in a class, by their resemblance; as, when gold, silver, iron, &c., make the class 'metal'; but 'metal' is in every respect a general and significant noun, and is not either a collective or a material noun.

Examples of Material Nouns.—Rock, stone, slate, marble, granite, sand, mud, lead, brass, zinc, copper, platinum, gold, salt, alum, soap, potash, butter, ham, tea, sugar, rice, tobacco, bread, linen, flax, cotton, hemp, paper, wine, beer, brandy, chloroform, arsenic, cloud, mist, dew, hoar-frost.

The *names of diseases* have been classed under proper nouns. There is also some resemblance between them and nouns of material. In grammatical construction, they agree with proper, material, and abstract nouns, and differ from the class noun. We do not say *a* typhus, typhus*es*. 'Fever' is sometimes a class noun, and used in the plural, implying that there are various kinds of fever.

Apparent Plurals of Material Nouns.—When strictly used, the material noun cannot be plural, for the reasons given. Yet, occasionally, we find such nouns used in the plural, as sands, wines, teas. This happens in three ways.

(1). When the material name is used to designate the *things made of it*; as *tins* for certain utensils made of tin; *papers* for what gives the news.

(2). When, instead of the whole collection, detached *portions of it* are meant; as stones, slates, peats, clouds, lights.

(3). When a material is divided into distinct *kinds*, or varieties; as wines, teas, sugars, salts, cottons, soaps, earths, waters. This is the commonest case of the material noun used in the plural.

In such cases the noun can be used in the singular with 'a' before it: *a* tin, *a* stone, *a* wine, *a* sugar, *a* water.

These nouns are then to be parsed as *class or general nouns*, thus:—'The botanist studies the *grasses*, and has found *a* new *grass*' (general noun). 'The cow eats *grass*' (material noun). 'They had *fish* (material noun) for dinner'; 'they ate four *fishes*' (general noun).

When *number* is thought of, we have a plural : '*two* men are in the room'. When *quantity* is thought of, even when expressed in number, we have the singular : 'twenty pounds *was* the sum charged'.

10. V. Abstract Nouns : as 'length', 'round-ness', 'whiteness', 'health', 'regularity', 'bravery', 'temperance', 'wisdom'.

When we examine an actually existing thing, as a house, a lion, we find that it has many different properties ; a house is *high*, it is *long*, it is *broad*, it is either *old* or *new*, and so on. We may look at it, and consider the *height*, without thinking of the length, or the width, or the colour, or the age, or the new-ness. In so doing we are said to *abstract* the height from the other properties. So, in turn, we might consider the *length* or the *breadth*, each by itself, without expressly thinking of anything else ; we should then abstract the length, or the breadth, as the case might be. These words—height, length, breadth, are called ABSTRACT Nouns.

So with a lion. We might, in looking at the lion, think separately and particularly of his *size*, or of his *shape*, or of his *colour*, or of his *strength*, or of his *fierceness ;* and, when thinking of him in each one of these aspects, we should be inattentive to the other points, although we could not entirely keep away the impression of them. These names, therefore, are abstract nouns.

Concrete Names.—As contrasted with the abstract names, the 'house' and the 'lion', each considered in all its properties together, are named by *concrete* names. All class nouns, which are also common, general, and significant nouns, are concrete nouns. Material nouns are likewise concrete.

For every separate power, property, attribute, or aspect of a thing in the concrete, there is an abstract designation, signifying that we are attending more to that property than to any of the others inseparably joined with it. A mountain (concrete) has height, length, width, shape, colour, weight, age—all abstract.

A man has height, weight, shape, colour, age, strength, hunger, taste, courage, skill, virtuousness or viciousness, and many other qualities, which, when spoken of by themselves, are qualities in the abstract, and are named by abstract nouns.

11. Abstract Nouns are mostly derived from Adjectives ; as 'length', from *long*, 'round-ness', from *round*, 'regularity', from *regular.*

The adjective expresses a property or attribute in combination with the concrete noun—*long* road, *round* tower, *wise* man. When the property is stated as an abstract noun—length, roundness, wisdom, the noun is a derivative from the adjective: 'long' becomes 'length', 'round' becomes 'roundness'.

The larger number of abstract nouns are derived from adjectives, by the addition of 'ness'; black, blackness; brightness, righteousness, foolishness, boldness, graciousness. This is the chief English or Saxon ending.

A few have the old Saxon termination 'th': truth, width, strength, wealth, health, death.

Many abstract nouns of Latin origin end in 'ty': quality, nobility, beauty, curiosity, verity, honesty, probity, temerity, rapidity, veracity, cupidity, stupidity.

Another class end in 'ce': prudence, patience, temperance, violence, benevolence, beneficence, magnificence, maleficence, malevolence, justice.

12. Other Abstract Nouns are formed from Verbs; as 'occupation', 'relief', 'conference', 'choice', 'service'.

'Occupation' is from the verb 'occupy', and expresses the action of the verb, like the infinitive 'to occupy', or 'occupying'.

'Relief' is from the verb 'relieve' and is nearly the same as the infinitives 'to relieve,' 'relieving'.

Bacon says, '*Reading* maketh a full man, *conference* a ready man'. 'Reading' and 'conference' both express the action of the verb—the one, 'reading', is an infinitive, or else a verbal abstract noun, the other, 'conference' is a verbal abstract noun; 'conferring' would have been the exact parallel of 'reading'.

Further examples.—Possession, abduction, malediction, construction, election, proof, sense, work, revival, reproach.

In such forms as 'election by lot', 'vote by ballot', the nouns are the same as the infinitives of verbs: 'electing by casting lots', 'voting by balloting', 'worship (worshipping) is a part of religion'.

13. Abstract Nouns are by nature Singular.
When they are used in the Plural, they are converted into common or general nouns.

They then mean particular examples, acts, or exercises.

'Length' is an abstract noun (adjective abstract). It is naturally singular. When we say 'a length' and 'lengths', we

make it a class or general noun, but the meaning is changed ; instead of length in the abstract, we take a particular measure, as a yard length, a field length.

'Colour' is abstract, as in '*colour* adds to the pleasures of the eye ', ' the *colour* of the sea'; it is a class or general name in 'the *colours* of the rainbow', which means different species or varieties of colour.

'Friendship' is abstract, the state of being and having a friend. 'A friendship', 'friendships' are the singular and plural of a class noun, meaning special or particular relations of friendship.

'Life ', abstract; 'a life' and 'lives', common or general. 'They were lovely and pleasant in their *lives*, and in their *death* (abstract) they were not divided.' 'Liberty', abstract; 'liberties', common—forms or kinds of liberty. 'Hold your *peaces*', 'I drink all your good *healths*'.

Other examples.—Art, grace, beauty, curiosity, pleasure, passion, feeling, will, memory, industry, government, society, severity, belief, proof, reason, virtue, genius, trial, error, resistance, service.

Uses of the Noun.

14. The typical application of the Noun **to name the Subject or the Object** of the sentence, is the basis of the Definition. (§ 1.)

15. Nouns are also used **to complete the Predicate**, with certain verbs of incomplete meaning. 'He is *a shoemaker'*; 'they are *fugitives'*; 'Napoleon was elected *Emperor'*. The fact is not stated with complete sense by the verb alone without the added nouns.

16. Nouns occur very often **in prepositional phrases,** that is, expressions made up of preposition and noun (or some equivalent of a noun). ' A man of-*virtue'*, 'cases of-the-utmost-*difficulty'*, 'he came in-great-*haste'*.

17. Nouns are very extensively used **as Adjectives :**—'*sea* monsters', '*field* guns', 'a *foot* race', '*garden* walls'.

This usage is a very great abbreviation, by ellipsis and rearrangement. 'Monsters *that live in the sea*' is shortened to

'monsters *living in the sea*', 'monsters *in* (or *of*) *the sea*'; and, finally, the only important word is retained and put in the regular position of the typical noun-qualifying word, the Adjective, '*sea* monsters'. Compare the use of the formal adjective: '*marine* monsters'.

The Possessive of the Noun (See INFLEXION) is practically an Adjective: 'the *King's* command' is the same as 'the *royal* command'; 'a *soldier's* life' is 'a *military* life'.

Substitutes for the Noun.

18. Pronouns regularly take the place of the Noun. (See p. 25, and following).

19. Adjectives are often converted into nouns; as 'the *deep*', 'the *future*', 'an *imbecile*', '*extremes*', 'the *originals*'.

Such examples are to be regarded as *cases of ellipsis;* a noun, being readily understood, is omitted, and the adjective thereupon assumes the force of the noun, and may even be inflected as a noun. The full forms of the examples given would be: 'the deep *sea*', 'the future *time*', 'an imbecile *person*', 'extreme *positions, opinions, measures*', &c., 'the original *documents, pictures*', &c.

The noun thus formed is often abstract, as in Greek and Latin: 'the *true*' for 'truth', 'the *beautiful*' for 'beauty'.

20. The Infinitive forms of the Verb are frequently used for nouns. '*To be united* is *to be strong*' is the same as '*union* is *strength*'; '*to delay* (or *delaying*) is dangerous' may be said in place of '*delay* is dangerous'.

The infinitive form is more simple than the corresponding abstract noun, and it is better adapted for taking on adjuncts that modify the action expressed.

21. Adverbs are in a few instances turned into nouns; as 'the *ayes* have it', 'the *ups* and *downs* of life', 'an eternal *now*', 'the *how*, the *when*, and the *why*', 'since *then*'.

This usage is prompted by the desire of shortness and vivid-ness. 'The *ayes*' is a short and easily understood way of saying 'the *members that say Ay*'; 'now' indicates emphatically and vividly *present time*, 'how' indicates *manner*, 'when' *time*, and so on.

22. A Noun Clause is a complete sentence standing in the position of a noun. '*That one should be careless* is inexcusable' is another way of saying '*carelessness* is inexcusable'.

The Noun clause gives in a longer, but simpler, form the meaning that would otherwise be expressed by a noun with adjuncts expressed or understood. It is a very opportune equivalent in cases where the adjuncts of the noun would be numerous and complicated.

THE PRONOUN.

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Definition.

I. The Pronoun differs from the Noun in expressing a thing, not by its own name, but by a reference or relation to something else: as '*I* (the person now speaking) say'; '*he* (some one formerly mentioned) remained'.

The first object of the Pronoun is to save by a reference the mention or the repetition of the Noun. Certain pronouns also, as will presently be seen, obviate the necessity of repeating the great substitutes of the Noun in composition—the Infinitive of the Verb and the Noun Clause. One or two of them are, further, extremely useful in anticipating these equivalent forms.

Classes of Pronouns.

2. I. Personal: 'I', 'we'; 'thou', 'you', 'ye'.

'I' and 'we' are pronouns of **the first person**; the others, 'thou', 'ye', 'you', are pronouns of **the second person.**

1. I means *the speaker standing alone* : '*I* charge you to depart'.

We means *the speaker, and others associated with him.*

In oral address only one can speak at a time, but that one, *speaking for others as well as for himself*, says 'we'. The foreman of a jury addresses the judge in the words, '*We* find the prisoner guilty'. In written composition 'we' is more strictly correct, because the parties signing their names at the end are all equally supposed to be uttering their sentiments.

Persons *in very high authority*, in issuing their commands, often use 'we' instead of 'I'; as, '*We*, Nicholas, Autocrat of all the Russias'.

In anonymous writing, as in newspapers and magazines, the writer speaks as 'we'. This is called *the editorial* 'we'.

'We' is used in speaking *for humanity generally* : '*we* fancy that *we* shall always feel as *we* do now'.

2. Thou is addressed to one person.

In the usages of our language this word is obsolete, except in the following cases :—

(1.) *In addressing the Almighty* : '*Thou* art the Lord alone'.

(2.) *In poetical use :* ' O *thou* that rollest in heaven above '.

(3.) *In expressing familiarity and contempt : ' **Thou** vile creature '.*

(4.) *In the language of the Society of Friends.*

You is the ordinary pronoun of the second person for one or more persons.

Ye is employed *for elevation :* ' *Ye* hills and dales '.

'Nor you, *ye* Proud, impute to these the fault.'

Also *in familiarity :* ' *Ye* need not wait '.

3. II. Demonstrative Pronouns : 'he', 'she', 'it'; 'they'; 'this', 'that'.

4. He is the pronoun of *the male sex* in man and in the higher animals, and in personified objects.

'Henry found that *he* was mistaken.' Speaking of the lion, we say, '*he* is very strong'; of the sun, '*he* is risen', '*he* is eclipsed'.

5. She is the pronoun of *the feminine gender* in man and in animals, and in personified objects.

'Elizabeth knew *she* could have *her* own way'; 'when the lioness sees *her* cubs in danger *she* flies to their help'; of France we can say ' *she* has experienced many vicissitudes '.

6. It is the pronoun of *the neuter gender*, referring to things without life, and to living beings that have no sex. ' The house is near ; let us go to *it* '.

When a human being or an animal is mentioned, without marking the gender, ' it ' is the pronoun used : —' *It* is a healthy child.' ' Where's the dog ? I have missed *it* '.

All objects spoken of, that have no sex, or whose sex is overlooked, are signified by ' it ' :—' Bring the *light* ; put *it* on the table ' ; ' I went to the river; *it* was swollen ' ; ' Lo, where *it* (the ghost) comes again ! '

The Modes of Reference of ' It '.

The modes of reference of this pronoun are various, and lead to conflicts of meaning.

I. The Backward or Retrospective reference, to a **noun,** an **infinitive,** or a **clause.**

1. The usual form of this is to some **single noun** going before, as in the examples given.

2. An **Infinitive phrase,** which is equivalent to a noun, may also be pointed back to.

' To resist your acts was necessary as *it* (namely, *to resist your acts*) was just ' ; ' to invoke your pity would be as useless as I should hold *it* (namely, *to invoke your pity*) mean '.

3. Another mode of backward reference, less frequently occurring, is to a **clause.**

' The day will be fine ; no one doubts *it.*' Here the antecedent is not the noun ' day ', but the whole assertion or clause ' the day will be fine '. ' I have done the state some service, and they know *it,*' means that they know the fact that ' I have done the state some service '.

The reference may be still more comprehensive, as when at the end of a long narrative, the hearer says, ' never mind *it* ' ; ' who would have thought *it ?* '

II. The Forward or Anticipating reference.

The subject of the reference in this application is very seldom a **noun,** it is either a **phrase** or a **clause.**

1. The anticipating of a **single noun** by 'it' is a rhetorical device rather than an ordinary form of plain prose.

'Surely, if needful, *it* is also frightful, *this machine*'; ''tis entirely of the earth *that passion*'. The plain straightforward form is : '*this machine* is also frightful', '*that passion* is entirely of the earth'.

There are also such examples as the following :—'*it* is surprising the little *progress* we made'. This, however, is in reality a transmuted clause ; if expressed in the full and regular form, the sentence would stand thus :—'*it* is surprising *how little we advanced—that we made so little progress*'.

2. The **infinitive phrase** is extremely common.

'*It* is healthy *to walk*'; 'it is useless *debating*'; '*it* is vain *to make excuses*'.

3. The **noun clause** is also most frequently anticipated by 'it'.

'*It* is probable *that the day will be fine*'; '*it* is said *that our army has gained a victory*'. The clauses are most commonly introduced by the conjunction 'that', but other conjunctions may be employed :—'*It* is uncertain *if* (or *whether*, or *when*) he will come '; '*it* is laid down *how far* we should go, and *what* or *how much* we should ask '.

This use of 'it' gives us something of the power of *inversion* belonging to languages different in structure from ours, and thus takes away an imperfection of our language as compared with these others. The idiom ' there is ' has the same effect.

III. The Indefinite reference.

This is carried to the utmost in the sayings, '*it* rains', 'what is *it* ?' 'how is *it* with you ?' '*it* is all over with us', 'they lord *it*', 'we roughed *it* in the back woods', ' he stars *it* in the provinces', 'trip *it* as ye go'. In such cases, there is scarcely a possibility of assigning any precise object, circumstance or fact, as an antecedent or reference. We can only in some circuitous way suppose that there is some action in the distance that leads to the employing of the pronoun. 'What's doing outside?' some one asks, with reference to the weather, and the answer is '*it* rains': a short way of saying that the action or on-going in the matter of weather, is the fall of rain.

This vagueness explains the use of the pronoun in violation of the concords of gender and number :—'*It* was *he*, not *she*, that I saw '.

'*'Tis they* that give the great Atrides spoils.'

The pronoun 'it' thus appears to have at least three distinct modes of reference in common use : 1st, to a simple subject, or noun, going before ; 2nd, to a phrase or a clause going before ; 3rd, to a phrase or a clause coming after. Hence we are often in great perplexity to say which of several possible references a writer has in view when he uses the word. 'When wit hath any mixture of raillery, *it* is but calling *it* banter, and the thing is done.' Here we judge from the meaning that the first 'it' is forward or anticipative, and the second backward or retrospective. The full illustration of this difficulty, and of the various modes of obviating it are given elsewhere (*Companion to the Higher Grammar*, pp. 43-50) ; at the same time we append here a few typical examples. We may farther remark that the relative 'which' has the same twofold reference, retrospectively, to a single subject or to a whole phrase or clause.

Further examples of the Pronoun 'it'.—We have seen that the variety of reference of this pronoun is a frequent cause of ambiguity. The peculiar idiom 'it is', 'it appears', 'it is said', 'it comes to pass', *followed* by the thing referred to, makes a clash of meaning such as does not occur with the other pronouns. 'I am going to mention the matter. *It* is right that *it* should be mentioned.' The first 'it' here is prospective, and refers to the clause 'that it should be mentioned' ; the second refers back to 'the matter'.

'*It* had been well both for England and (for) Scotland that there had been more of such good and moderate kings, as *it* would have prevented many long wars.' ' It ' in both instances points to the same clause —'that there had been more of such good and moderate kings '—but the first precedes, and the other follows the clause.

'There are so many advantages of speaking one's own language well, and being a master of *it*, that let a man's calling be what *it* will, *it* cannot but be worth our taking some pains in *it*.' The variety of reference here is very great. The first 'it' has 'language' for its antecedent, the *prominent* subject of the previous clause, and is therefore unexceptionable ; the second 'it' readily refers us to the noun immediately preceding, 'calling' ; the third is an indefinite reference rather than a reference to 'language' ; and the fourth carries us back to 'language'. To remedy the confusion, the third 'it' should be done away with, and the second removed to the end : 'the advantages of speaking one's own language well are so many, that the taking of some pains to be master of *it*, cannot but be worth while to every man, let his calling be what *it* will '. The pronouns remaining are so placed that their antecedents are obvious. Even the second 'it' may be easily dispensed

with by changing the last clause to 'whatever may be his calling'.

When we intend to employ the prospective 'it', 'it is', &c., we should not bring the retrospective use into collision with the other. 'The best way in the world for a man to seem to be anything is really to be what he would seem to be. Besides that, *it* is many times as troublesome to make good the pretence of a good quality as to have *it*; and if a man have *it* not, *it* is ten to one but he is discovered to want *it*, and then all his pains and labours to seem to have *it* are lost.' Here the two modes of reference are inextricably confused together. One of them ought to be done away with. 'Besides, to make good the pretence of a good quality is many times as troublesome as to have *it*; and if a man have *it* not, ten to one but he is discovered to want *it*, and then all his pains and labour to seem to have *it* are lost.' The sole reference now is to the one subject 'quality'.

'If *it* were spoken with never so great skill in the actor, the manner of uttering that sentence could have nothing in *it* which could strike any but people of the greatest humanity—nay, people elegant and skilful in observations upon *it*.' The first 'it' refers to 'sentence', the others to 'manner'. The first might be left out, the clause being converted into a participial expression which would be readily interpreted as in connection with 'that sentence': 'if spoken with never so great skill'.

'*It* is a sign of great prudence to be willing to receive instruction; the most intelligent persons sometimes stand in need of *it*.' 'Willingness to receive instruction is a sign of great prudence; the most intelligent persons sometimes stand in need of *it*'—is better; although the natural antecedent would still be, not 'instruction', but 'willingness'. Or the first 'it' may stand, and the repetition of 'instruction' be saved by the use of another noun of much the same meaning; as 'information and suggestion'.

7. They is the plural of 'He' and 'She' applied to persons, and of 'It' applied to things.

'I met the soldiers; *they* were on the march.' 'I saw his daughters; *they* were in the field.' 'Gold, silver, and platinum are the noble metals; *they* are so called because *they* do not rust.'

8. This and **That** are properly Demonstrative Adjectives.

They usually have a noun expressed or understood, as 'I take *this* place, you take *that*'. In the first clause, the noun 'place'

is expressed, in the second it is understood ; in the one, 'this' is an Adjective, in the other, 'that' may be classified as either an Adjective or a Demonstrative Pronoun.

The case where 'that' seems to have most of the nature of a true pronoun is seen in the following sentences ; 'he mistook his own room for *that* of the stranger': 'the song of the nightingale is more various than *that* of the thrush'. This is a form derived from the French ; our native idioms applicable to the case, which are to be preferred when they can be used, are, 1st, to repeat the noun,—'his own room for the stranger's room'; and 2nd, to use the possessive without the noun,—'for the stranger's'. The possessive inflexion being so rarely in use, we are thrown principally upon the first form when we wish to keep clear of the Gallicism.

In the line, 'to be, or not to be, *that* is the question', 'that' may be considered as a pronoun, having a whole clause for the antecedent, as we have seen with the demonstrative 'it'. We might still consider the word as an adjective with a noun dropped, or put in a different place, and so look upon the passage as an abbreviation of 'to be, or not to be—*that question* is it'. 'One thing have I desired of the Lord, *that* (thing) I will seek after.'

'This' is of the nature of a pronoun in the phrases 'before this', 'after this'; there being, however, an ellipsis of 'time'.

For the full illustration of the various uses of 'this' and 'that', see the *Companion to the Higher Grammar*, pp. 52-61.

9. Certain Pronouns of Demonstrative signification are called Indefinite, from signifying not any particular subject, but persons or things taken generally. Such are One and They : '*one* cannot be sure of that'; 'any of the little *ones*'.

They is also used colloquially in this indefinite sense : '*they* say that the harvest is good'; but 'the harvest is said to be good' is better English.

In the first example, **one** is a special application of the numeral, taking the place of the old indefinite 'man', perhaps under some slight influence of the French *on*, which is a corruption of *homme*—man. When the subject of the verb is unknown, or of little consequence, the French use *on*, as *cn dit* —'it is said' (by no one in particular) ; 'on commence à ériger'—'people begin to build'; it being no matter who are to be employed, provided the work is done. We use the passive voice in such cases : 'the building is begun'. We employ 'one' in somewhat different circumstances. Thus, if we were putting

a supposition by way of argument or illustration, we might give it in the following forms : 'suppose *I* were to lose my way in a wood'; or, 'suppose *you* were to lose your way'; or, 'suppose *one* were to lose *one's* way'. All are made use of, but as a general rule, the last is preferred as a matter of good taste. The first is objectionable as verging on egotism, the second as using freedoms with another person, whereas the third is indifferent. 'If *one's* honesty were impeached, what should *one* do ?' is a politer mode of making the supposition than to take either one's self, or the person addressed, for the example.

'One' should be followed by 'one', and not by 'he'. 'What *one* sees or feels, *one* cannot but be sure that *one* sees or feels.' This may sound stiff, but the following is lax : 'the better acquainted *one* is with any kind of rhetorical trick, the less liable *he* is to be misled by it'.

In the second example given above—'the little *ones*'—'one' is the numeral employed in the manner of a pronoun, by indicating something that has gone before (or perhaps has to come after) : 'I like peaches, but I must have a ripe *one*, or some ripe *ones*'.

Other adjectives are used in almost the same way ; as 'give me *one or two*'; 'I will take *either*, or *neither*, or *both*, or *any one*, or *some*, or *all*, or *none*'.

'Such' and 'same' are employed as demonstrative pronouns : 'if you are a man, show yourself *such*'. The use of 'same' in common style is inelegant. The adverbs, 'so', 'thus', 'then', 'there', 'here', 'hence', 'thence', 'hither', 'thither', serve the purpose of the demonstratives : 'do *so* then', for 'do it', or 'do that'; 'and if *so* be that he find it'.

10. Compound Personal and Demonstrative Pronouns—Reflexive.

The word self enters into compounds with both the Personal and Demonstrative Pronouns ; as 'myself', 'thyself', 'ourself', 'ourselves', 'yourself', 'yourselves', 'himself', 'herself', 'itself', 'oneself', or 'one's self', 'themselves'. These are called Reflexive Pronouns.

The true reflexive use is seen in cases like 'I hurt *myself*', 'he does *himself* injustice', 'mind *yourself*'; the action of the subject being turned back upon himself, so that he is object as well. These pronouns also impart *emphasis*: as 'I myself', 'he himself', 'they themselves'; and this is the original application. Both the intensive or emphatic and the strictly reflexive use appear in Tennyson's line : "And I *myself* sometimes despise *myself*".

Nearly always in the oldest English, and very frequently later, especially in poetry, the simple pronouns are used as reflexive objects : ' ic *me* reste (I rest *me*) ', ' he threw *him* down ', ' I will bethink *me* ', ' quit *you* like men ', ' comfort *ye*, comfort *ye*, my people '.

II. III. Interrogative Pronouns :—' who ', ' which ', ' what ', ' whether '.

12. Who applies to *persons*, and is entirely *indefinite*. ' *Who* goes there ? ' supposes complete ignorance of the person alluded to.

13. Which, unlike its use as a Relative, applies to *persons* as well as to *things*. Its peculiar force is *selective*.

The application to all genders is in accordance with the original derivation ; the old English form of ' which ', *hwilc*, being for ' *hwi-lic* ' (*who-like* or *what-like*), and -*lic* being open to the necessary inflections.

' Which ' supposes a known class or group, and inquires the specific individual or individuals : ' *Which* of you convinceth me of sin ? ' ' *Which* is the way ? ' ' *Which* is the best ? '

14. What applies *exclusively to things ;* as ' *what* did you see ? ' ' *What* is to be done ? '

In the earliest period of the language ' what ' was the regular neuter corresponding to the masculine and feminine ' who '.

It may be called by pre-eminence the interrogative of know-ledge, or the expression of a desire to be informed respecting some part of the world : ' *What* is man ? ' ' *What* is light-ning ? ' ' *What* is the cause of the tides ? '

15. Whether, an old dual, was formerly applied to ask ' which of two ' : ' *Whether* is greater, the gold, or the temple ? ' ' *Whether* of them twain did the will of his father ? '

16. IV. Relative Pronouns : ' who ', ' which ', ' that ', ' what '. These are the proper relatives.

' Who ', ' which ', and ' what ', were all previously interroga-tives ; ' that ' was demonstrative. The relative usage is a later application.

There are several other words that answer the purpose of relatives; '(such) as', 'but', 'when', 'where', 'whither', 'whence', and the compounds, 'whoever', 'whoso', 'whosoever', 'whichever', 'whichsoever', 'whatsoever', 'whenever', 'whensoever', &c.

17. A Relative Pronoun stands for a noun, or subject otherwise mentioned, with the power of a conjunction besides. It joins sentences and clauses by referring back directly to something just named.

In the sentence, 'I found an old acquaintance, *whom* I had not seen for some time'; '*whom*' is the same as '*and him* I had not seen'. 'I do not know *what* you say' is equivalent to 'I do not know *that that* you say', '*you say that, but* I do not know *that*'.

18. Who and its compounds, 'whoso', 'whoever', 'whosoever', apply to persons; and 'who' sometimes applies to the higher animals.

In the earliest English, 'who' was interrogative. The inflected forms 'whose' and 'whom' appear as relatives in the 12th century; 'who' itself was much later in being used as a relative, and did not freely act as such till the 16th century.

In the Elizabethan times 'who' was not unfrequently applied to lifeless objects; mostly, perhaps, with a feeling of personification. Shakespeare has : 'a gentle *flood, who,* being stopped, the bounding banks o'erflows'; 'the *winds, who* take the ruffian billows by the tops'; and such like.

'Who' is commonly applied in two very different significations.

I. To connect two co-ordinate sentences : as 'I met the watchman, *who* told me there had been a fire'.

Here the two sentences are distinct and independent ; in such a case 'and he' might have been substituted for 'who'.

Another form of the same use is when the second clause is of the kind termed adverbial, where we may still resolve 'who' into a personal or demonstrative pronoun and a conjunction. 'Why should we consult Charles, *who (for he, seeing that he)* knows nothing of the matter ?'

II. In modern use, more especially in books, 'who' is frequently employed **to introduce a clause intended to restrict, define, limit, or explain a noun** (or its equivalent); as 'that is the man *who* spoke to us yesterday'.

Here the clause introduced by 'who' is necessary to define or explain the antecedent 'the man'; without it we do not know who 'the man' is. Such relative clauses are typical *adjective* clauses : *i.e.*, they have the same effect as adjectives in limiting nouns. This may be called the **restrictive** use of the relative.

Now it will be found that the practice of our most idiomatic writers and speakers is to prefer 'that' to 'who' in this application; whereas, for the other meaning, 'that' would be less proper.

19. **Which** refers to lifeless objects. The compounds, 'whichever' and 'whichsoever', may refer also to persons.

Though originally interrogative, 'which' appears very early as a relative; and this use was confirmed and extended by French influence. By the 13th century it was not uncommon.

The exclusion of 'which' from reference to *persons* (compare 'which' interrogative, § 13), has become more and more strict, since the end of the 17th century. Before then the application of 'which' to persons was quite common. 'Our Father *which* art in Heaven', is a familiar representative of numerous examples in the Bible. Even Tennyson wrote : 'The one true lover *which* you ever had'; but the newest edition (1878) reads 'The one true lover *whom* you ever *own'd*'.

'Which' is employed with reference to things in both the senses just given of 'who' with reference to persons.

First, in *co-ordinate* sentences, where 'it', or 'they', and a conjunction might answer the purpose ; thus, 'at school I studied geometry, *which (and it)* I found useful afterwards'. Here the new clause is something independent added to the previous clause, and not limiting that clause in any way. So in the adverbial clause, as 'he struck the poor dog, *which (and or although it)* had never done him harm'. Such instances represent the most accurate meaning of 'which', as of 'who'; and accordingly, we might term these **the co-ordinating relatives.**

'Which' is likewise used in *restrictive* clauses that limit or explain its antecedent; as 'the house *which* he built still remains'. Here the clause introduced by 'which' specifies, or points out, the house that is the subject of the statement, namely, by the circumstance that a certain person built it. As remarked with regard to 'who', our most idiomatic writers prefer 'that' in this particular application, and would say 'the house *that* he built remains'.

There is a special reference of 'which' attaching to it as the neuter relative.

'Cæsar crossed the Rubicon, *which* was in effect a declaration of war'. The antecedent to 'which' in this instance is not the 'Rubicon', but the entire clause, 'Cæsar crossed the Rubicon'; this fact being what amounted to war. It will be remembered that the neuter demonstrative 'it' in like manner may have a clause for its antecedent (§ 6) : we might say 'Cæsar crossed the Rubicon when nobody expected *it'; '* it ' referring still to the fact of Cæsar's crossing, and not to the 'Rubicon'. Now this meaning of 'which' is not one of the meanings of the relative 'that' as a retrospective pronoun, although 'that' may apply to things as well as to persons.

There is a peculiar usage where 'which' may **seem** to be still regularly **used in reference to persons**; as in 'John is a *a soldier, which* I should also like to be', that is, 'and I should also like to be *a soldier'.* But although the complement of the verb is here in the form of a noun, the usual form is the adjective; and examples like these may be regarded as similar to the following, where the reference is to an adjective : 'He turned quite white from *red, which* he had been'—that is, ' he had been red '. The demonstratives 'this', 'that', 'such', 'so', as well as 'either', 'neither', and 'both', are used similarly.

The form '*the* which', so common in the Elizabethan period, occurs early in the 14th century, as equivalent to the French *lequel, laquelle.* It obtained much more favour than the companion form '*the* whom'. 'The whose' was also used.

20. 'That' is the proper restrictive, explicative, limiting, or defining relative.

'That,' the neuter of the definite article, was early in use as a neuter relative. All the other oldest relatives gradually dropt away, and 'that' came to be applied also to plural antecedents, and to masculines and feminines. When 'as', 'which', and 'who', came forward to share the work of 'that', there seems to

have arisen not a little uncertainty about the relatives, and we find curious double forms : ' whom that ', ' which that ', ' which as ', &c. Gower has ' Venus *whose* priest *that* I am ' ; Chaucer writes—' This Abbot *which that* was an holy man,' ' his love *the which that* he oweth '. By the Elizabethan period, these double forms have disappeared, and all the relatives are used singly without hesitation. From then till now, ' that ' has been struggling with ' who ' and ' which ' to regain superior favour, with varying success.

The best writers often appear to grope after a separate employment for the several relatives. ' Who ' is used for persons, ' which ' for things, in both numbers ; so is ' that ' ; and the only opportunity of a special application of ' that ' lies in the important distinction between co-ordination and restriction. Now, as ' who ' and ' which ' are most commonly preferred for co-ordination, it would be a clear gain to confine them to this sense and to reserve ' that ' for the restrictive application alone. This arrangement, then, would *fall in with the most general use of ' that ', especially beyond the limits of formal composition.*

The use of ' that ' solely as restrictive, with ' who ' and ' which ' solely as co-ordinating, *also avoids ambiguities* that often attend the indiscriminate use of ' who ' and ' which ' for co-ordinate and for restrictive clauses. Thus, when we say, ' his conduct surprised his English friends, *who* had not known him long ', we may mean either that his English friends generally were surprised (the relative being, in that case, *co-ordinating*), or that only a portion of them—namely, the particular portion that had not known him long—were surprised. In this last case the relative is meant to define or explain the antecedent, and the doubt would be removed by writing thus : ' his English friends *that* had not known him long.' So in the following sentence there is a similar ambiguity in the use of ' which ' : ' the next winter *which* you will spend in town will give you opportunities of making a more prudent choice '. This may mean, either ' you will spend next winter in town ' (' which ' being co-ordinating), or ' the next of the winters when you are to live in town,' let that come when it may. In the former case ' which ' is the proper relative ; in the latter case the meaning is restrictive or defining, and would be best brought out by ' that ' : ' the next winter *that* you will spend in town '.

A further consideration in favour of employing ' that ' for explicative clauses is the unpleasant effect arising from the *too frequent repetition of ' who ' and ' which '.* Grammarians often recommend ' that ' as a means of varying the style ; but this end ought to be sought in subservience to the still greater end 'f perspicuity.

21. What and its compounds, 'whatever' and 'whatsoever', apply to things.

In the oldest English 'what' was interrogative (§ 14). For the regular relative use in application to things, the other relatives were sufficient, and 'what' was not very extensively employed. Some such instances as these might be cited : 'The matter *what* other men wrote', 'nothing *what* can be said against me', 'that *what* I have always maintained'.

The transition from the interrogative form to such examples as the following is easy : 'Look, *what* I speak, my life shall prove *it* true '; '*what* he bids, *that* thou shalt do '. The omission of the demonstrative then gives the usual form : '*what* I speak my life shall prove true '; '*what* he bids thou shalt do '. Or, in natural order : 'thou shalt do *what* he bids'. This is obviously equal to 'thou shalt do *that which* (or *that*) he bids '; and hence 'what' is commonly described as practically a *compound* relative, combining as it were both relative and antecedent. The antecedent is regularly suppressed, except in certain inverted forms.

In such expressions as the following, 'what' may be put for 'that which ', and is generally an improvement : 'In certain cases we refrain from doing *that which* we have a natural desire to do, or force ourselves to do *that* to *which* we feel a repugnance '.

Substitutes for the Proper Relatives.

22. As, preceded by Such or by Same, has the force of a relative, applying to both persons and things, and always with an explicative or *restrictive* signification.

'The curse denounced upon *such as* removed ancient landmarks ': this might have been 'them that ', or 'those that ', but not so properly '*who* '. 'He offered me the *same* conditions *as* he offered you ': 'the *same* conditions *that* ' would be equally good ; 'the *same* conditions *which* ', though common, may be considered inferior.

The true relative force lies, not in 'such' and 'same', but in 'as'. By the 14th century 'as' sometimes took the place of 'that' in the ordinary construction, without a preceding 'such' or 'same'; but this usage did not continue in favour with writers, though it is still familiar in provincial and vulgar English : 'the man *as* (= *that*) rides to market'. In the oldest English, 'such' was followed by 'such' (*swilc swilc*). King Alfred used 'such . . which' (*swelc . .*

hwelc).   In the 12th century 'such . . *as*' appears. Chaucer has 'such . . *which*' and 'such . . *that*': 'I shall loven *such that* I will'. 'Who', 'which', and 'that' after 'such' were especially common in the period of Queen Anne. 'Such . . *as*' has ruled since.

The form 'such . . *as*' is a convenient substitute for 'that', and enables us *to vary the relative construction* in restrictive clauses without loss of clearness. It has the further advantage of enabling us *to enclose the antecedent*: 'such *skill* as he displayed.'

'As' may easily be replaced by 'which' in certain *co-ordinating* cases. 'The ships were frozen in, *as* not unfrequently happens in these regions' : 'as' is here very much the same as 'which' in the reference to a whole clause going before. The adverbial sense of 'as' is more prominent in this application.

23. The word **But** is substantially a relative in certain constructions *where the principal clause has a negative force.* 'But' is always *restrictive.*

'There was no one *but* did his best' is equal to 'there was no one *that* did *not* (do) his best'. 'Who is there *but* commits errors?' 'Who is there *that* does *not* commit errors?'

Earlier, it was usual to insert after 'but' the appropriate demonstrative pronoun : as 'there was never yet fair woman *but she* made mouths in a glass'; 'scarce a skull's cast up *but* well he knew *its* owner'.

24. The adverb **when** answers the purpose of the relative (and governing preposition), with a noun of *time* as the antecedent; as 'the good news from Ireland reached London at a time *when* good news was needed'.

It is also usual to employ 'in which' for the same meaning; but in cases where the relative clause limits or defines, 'that' is the proper relative, and we can say 'the very day *that* he arrived'. 'When' has not always the explicative meaning; thus, 'the day of trial will come, *when* all will be different'; 'in which' would here be the correct relative. We may say, however, that 'when' is perhaps oftener restrictive than co-ordinating.

25. Where is used as a relative when the antecedent denotes *place*; as 'I put the book in the place'

where I found it; for '*in which* I found it', or '*that* I found it *in*'.

The remarks made on 'when' apply to 'where'. It may be a substitute for either relative, but is perhaps more commonly and better applied when the restrictive meaning is intended, as in the above instance. 'Where' takes a much wider range than literal place, being extended to the many metaphorical applications of place; as, 'the *point where* your argument fails'.

These two adverbial relatives are of great use in varying and lightening composition, which is always liable to be overburdened with the common relatives.

26. Whence is occasionally used as a relative of place: 'he returned to the place *whence* he came', instead of '*from which* he came', or '*that* he came *from*'.

27. Whither is used in like manner in the sense of 'to a place'; as 'I followed him to the house, *whither* (= *to which*) he had gone'.

28. Why as a relative is always restrictive, and stands for 'on account of which', 'that — for'.

'There was no reason *why* he should think so,' is a short and elegant way of saying '*on account of which* or *for which* he should think so', or '*that* he should think so *(for)*'.

'Whence', 'whither', and 'why' are of less general application than 'when' and 'where'. They are more confined to their principal use as interrogative adverbs. As relatives they are, strictly speaking, the equivalents of the common relatives with prepositions, 'from which' (whence), 'to which' (whither), 'for which' (why).

29. The compound forms 'whoever', 'whoso', 'whosoever', 'whichever', 'whichsoever', 'whatever', 'whatsoever', 'whenever', 'whensoever', 'wherever', 'wheresoever', 'whithersoever', 'whencesoever', have a certain *indefinite meaning*, and have their *antecedents often left unexpressed;* thus, '*whoever* is found wanting', means *any person* that is found; '*whoso* is wise'; '*whatever* be the consequences, I dare not stay'; '*wherever, whithersoever* you go'.

The characteristic meanings of these words are more closely allied with the *interrogative* meanings of 'who', 'which', 'what', &c., than with their meanings as relatives. Thus the peculiar force of 'which' as an interrogative is, 'which one of a certain defined number or class?' and this is the meaning of 'whichsoever'.

30. *Further examples of Relative Construction.* (See also *Companion to the Higher Grammar*, pp. 63-85).

The distinction observed by our idiomatic writers between 'that', on the one hand, and 'who' and 'which', on the other, although for the present very much lost sight of, deserves to be revived, both for the perspicuity and lightness of the composition. The following examples will serve further to illustrate the distinction.

1. 'In general, Mr. Burchell was fondest of the company of children, *whom* he used to call harmless little men.' 'Whom' is here idiomatically used, being the equivalent of '*and them* he used to call', &c.

> 'Bacon at last, a mighty man, arose,
> *Whom* a wise king and nation chose
> Lord Chancellor of both their laws.'

Here also 'whom' is equal to 'and him'.

In the following instance the relative is restrictive or defining, and 'that' would be preferable: 'the conclusion of the *Iliad* is like the exit of a great man out of company *whom* he has entertained magnificently'. Compare another of Addison's sentences: 'a man of polite imagination is let into a great many pleasures *that* the vulgar are not capable of receiving'.

Both relatives are introduced discriminatingly in this passage:—'She had learned that from Mrs. Wood, *who* had heard it from her husband, *who* had heard it at the public-house from the landlord, *who* had been let into the secret by the boy *that* carried the beer to some of the prisoners'.

The following sentences are ambiguous under the modern system of using 'who' for both purposes:—'I met the boatman *who* took me across the ferry'. If 'who' is the proper relative here, the meaning is 'I met the boatman, *and he* took me across', it being supposed that the boatman is known and definite. But if there be several boatmen, and I wish to indicate one in particular by the circumstance that he had taken me across the ferry, I should use 'that'. 'The youngest boy *who* has learned to dance is James.' This means either 'the youngest boy is James, *and he* has learned to dance', or 'of the

boys, the youngest that has learned to dance is James'. This last sense is restrictive, and 'that' should be used.

2. Turning now to 'which', we may have a series of parallel examples. 'The court, *which* gives currency to manners, should be exemplary': here the meaning is 'the court should be exemplary, *for the court* gives currency to manners'. 'Which' is the idiomatic relative in this case. 'The cat, *which* you despise so much, is a very useful animal.' The relative here also is co-ordinating, and not restrictive. If it were intended to point out one individual cat specially despised by the person addressed, 'that' would convey the sense. 'A theory *which* does not tend to the improvement of practice is utterly unworthy of regard.' The meaning is restrictive; 'a theory *that* does not tend'. The following sentence is one of many from Goldsmith that give 'that' instead of 'which':—'age, *that* lessens the enjoyment of life, increases our desire of living'. Thackeray also was fond of this usage. But it is not very common.

'Their faith tended to make them improvident; but a wise instinct taught them that if there was one thing *which* ought not to be left to fate, or to the precepts of a deceased prophet, it was the artillery'; a case where 'that' is the proper relative.

'All words, *which* are signs of complex ideas, furnish matter of mistake.' This gives an erroneous impression, and should be 'all words *that* are signs of complex ideas'.

'In all cases of prescription, the universal practice of judges is to direct juries by analogy to the Statute of Limitations, to decide against incorporeal rights *which* have for many years been relinquished': say instead, 'incorporeal rights *that* have for many years', and the sense is clear.

3. It is necessary for the proper understanding of 'which' to advert to its peculiar function of referring to a whole clause as the antecedent : 'William ran along the top of the wall, *which* alarmed his mother very much'. The antecedent is obviously not the noun 'wall', but the fact expressed by the entire clause —'William ran', &c. 'He by no means wants sense, *which* only serves to aggravate his former folly'; namely, (not 'sense', but) the circumstance 'that he does not want sense'. 'He is neither over-exalted by prosperity, nor too much depressed by misfortune; *which* you must allow marks a great mind.' 'We have done many things *which* we ought not to have done', might mean 'we ought not *to have done many things*; that is, 'we ought to have done few things'. 'That' would give the exact sense intended: 'we have done many things *that* we ought not to have done'. 'He began to look after his affairs himself, *which* was the way to make them prosper.'

4. We must next allude to the cases where the **relative** is

governed by a preposition. We can use a preposition before 'who' and 'which', but when the relative is 'that', the preposition must be thrown to the end of the clause. Owing to an imperfect appreciation of the genius of our language, offence was taken at this usage by some of our leading writers at the beginning of last century, and to this circumstance we must refer the disuse of 'that' as the relative of restriction.*

* Speaking of Dryden, Hallam says, 'His *Essay on Dramatic Poesy*, published in 1668, was reprinted sixteen years afterwards, and it is curious to observe the changes which Dryden made in the expression. Malone has carefully noted all these ; they show both the care the author took with his own style, and the change which was gradually working in the English language. The Anglicism of terminating the sentence with a preposition is rejected. Thus, " I cannot think so contemptibly of the age I live in," is exchanged for " the age in which I live ". " A deeper expression of belief than all the actor can persuade us to," is altered, " can insinuate into us ". And, though the old form continued in use long after the time of Dryden, it has of late years been reckoned inelegant, and proscribed in all cases, perhaps with an unnecessary fastidiousness, to which I have not uniformly deferred, since our language is of Teutonic structure, and the rules of Latin and French grammar are not always to bind us.'

On the same subject Dr. Campbell remarks :—' Now that I am on the subject of the prepositions, it will not be improper to consider a peculiarity which is often to be found with us in their arrangement. In every other language the preposition is almost constantly prefixed to the noun which it governs ; in English it is sometimes placed not only after the noun, but at a considerable distance from it, as in the following example : " The infirmary was, indeed, never so full as on this day ; *which* I was at some loss to account *for*, till upon my going abroad I observed it was an easterly wind." Here no fewer than seven words intervene between the relative *which* and the preposition *for* belonging to it. Besides, the preposition doth not here precede its regimen, but follows it. One would imagine, to consider the matter abstractly, that this could not fail in a language like ours, which admits so few inflections, to create obscurity. Yet this, in fact, is seldom or never the consequence. Indeed the singularity of the idiom hath made some critics condemn it absolutely. That there is nothing analogous in any known tongue, ancient or modern, hath appeared to them a sufficient reason. I own it never appeared so to me.' —*Rhetoric*, Book III., Chap. 4.

The following examples, taken from Massinger's *Grand Duke of Florence*, will show what was the usage of the Elizabethan writers :—

'For I must use the freedom *I was born with*.'

'In that dumb rhetoric *which* you *make use of*.'

'—— if I had been heir
Of all the globes and sceptres mankind *bows to*.'

'—— the name of friend
Which you are pleased to *grace me with*.'

'—— wilfully ignorant in my opinion
Of what it did *invite him to*.'

'I look to her as on a princess
I dare not be ambitious of.'

'—— a duty
That I was born with.'

'It is curious that the only circumstance connected with Scott, and related by Lockhart, *of which* I was a witness, is incorrectly stated in the *Life of Sir Walter*'. (Leslie's *Memoirs*.) The relative should be restrictive : '*that* I was a witness *of*'.

'There are many words *which* are adjectives *which* have nothing to do with the qualities of the nouns *to which* they are put.' (Cobbett.) Better : 'there are many words *that* are adjectives *that* have nothing to do with the qualities of the nouns *(that)* they are put *to*'.

'Other objects, *of which* we have not occasion to speak so frequently, we do not designate by a name of their own.' This, if amended, would be : 'other objects *that* we have not occasion to speak *of* so frequently, we do not', &c.

'Sorrow for the dead is the only sorrow *from which* we refuse to be divorced ;' 'the only sorrow *(that)* we refuse to be divorced *from*'.

'Why, there is not a single sentence in this play *that* I do not know the meaning *of*.' (Addison.)

'Originality is a thing we constantly clamour *for*, and constantly quarrel *with*.' (Carlyle.)

5. 'Whose' although the possessive of 'who', and practically of 'which', is yet frequently employed for the purpose of restriction :

> 'He spoke of love, such love as spirits feel,
> In worlds *whose* course is equable and pure.'

This is not felt to be so great a departure from idiom as the prepositional forms 'of whom', 'of which' are, when used to define or restrict the subject.

'We are the more likely to guard watchfully against those faults *whose* deformity we have seen fully displayed in others.' This is better than 'the deformity *of which* we have seen'.

'Propositions *of whose* truth we have no certain knowledge.' (Locke.)

6. 'Where', and its compounds—'wherein', 'whereof', &c., are substitutes for both relatives. They may therefore be used instead of 'that', without the misleading effect of 'which'. The following are examples :—'the happiest condition of society is (that) *where* the greatest number of persons is (should be *are*) found possessing a moderate yet sufficient subsistence'; 'I

> '—— must supply me
> With all *I am defective in*.'

> '—— a copious theme
> Which would, discoursed at large *of*, make a volume.'

So in Shakspeare, to take an example out of many :—

> 'To have no screen between the part he played
> And him he *played it for*.'

know of no rule *whereby* it may be done'; 'they (great virtues) often save, and always illustrate the age and nation *in which* (*wherein*) they appear'; for 'the age and nation *that* they appear *in*'.

7. '*Such as*' is restrictive, and is a convenient mode of varying the relative construction : 'Eat *such* things *as* are set before you'. 'Whitfield's preaching was *such as* England had never heard before.'

> 'Hard fare ! but *such as* boyish appetite
> Disdains not, nor the palate, undepraved
> By culinary arts, unsavoury deems.' (Cowper.)

8. '*What*', the equivalent of 'the—that', 'that which', has the advantage of taking a preposition : 'ruin seemed impending and inevitable, though no one could tell *in what* it would first show itself', or '*what* it would first show itself *in*'.

> '*What* in me is dark,
> Illumine ; *what* is low, raise and support.'

'It is probable that any attempt to establish a different classification of the parts of speech, from *that which* (*what*) is commonly received, will be found of little utility.'

9. We have also seen that a clause in participial adjection may have a restrictive force : 'a truth *long forgotten* may have to be rediscovered '. 'What man among you, *having* a hundred sheep,' equal to 'that has'. 'We give the papers *showing* (for 'that show ') the concord *existing* between the four Powers at the time when England and France were engaging in a separate course of action' (Kinglake). 'But it would be absurd to expect mercy, justice, or wisdom from a class of men first *abased* by many years of oppression, and then *maddened* by the joy of sudden deliverance, and *armed* with irresistible power' (Macaulay).

10. In the following examples we shall avail ourselves, as may seem fit, of all the foregoing devices, with a view to amending the relative construction.

'There are one or two objections *which* have been brought against the study of political economy, *which* it may be useful to notice,' may be amended thus : 'there are one or two objections (that have been) *brought* against the study of political economy, *which* (*and these*) it may be useful to notice '; 'it may be useful to notice one or two objections brought against the study of political economy '.

'There are two objections, however, *by which* (*whereby*) its justness may be possibly controverted.'

'A spirit more amiable, but less vigorous, than Luther's would have shrunk back from the dangers *which* he braved and surmounted ;' '*that* he braved '; 'the dangers *braved* and *surmounted* by him '.

'Nor is it at all improbable that the emigrants had been guilty of those faults *from which* civilised men *who* settle among an uncivilised people are rarely free' (Macaulay). 'Nor is it at all improbable that the emigrants had been guilty of *the* faults *that* (*such faults as*) civilised men *that settle* (*settling*, or *settled*) among an uncivilised people are rarely free *from*.'

11. The form 'those who' applied in a restrictive sense is the modern substitute for the ancient idiom 'they that', an idiom in accordance with the true meaning of 'that'. '*They that* told me the story, said'; 'blessed are *they that* mourn'; 'and Simon and *they that* were with him'; 'I love *them that* love me, and *they that* seek me early shall find me'; '*they that* are whole have no need of a physician'; 'how sweet is the rest of *them that* labour!' 'I cannot tell who to compare them to so fitly as to *them that* pick pockets in the presence of the judge'; '*they that* enter into the state of marriage cast a die of the greatest contingency' (J. Taylor).

> '*That* man hath perfect blessedness
> *Who* walketh not astray,'

if expressed according to the old idiom would be, '*the* man hath—*that* walketh'.

'That', 'those', as demonstrative adjectives refer backward, and are not therefore well suited for the forward reference implied in making use of 'that which', 'those who' as restrictive relatives. It is also very cumbrous to say '*that* case *to which* you allude', for 'the case (*that*) you allude *to*'.

12. Take now the following :—'the Duke of Wellington is not one of *those who* interferes with matters *over which* he has no control'; 'the Duke is not one of *them that* interfere in matters *that* they have no control *over* (matters *that* they cannot control, *beyond their control, out of their province*)'. If 'them that' sounds too antiquated, we may adopt as a convenient compromise, 'the Duke is not one of *those that*'; or 'the Duke is not one *to interfere* in matters out of his province'; 'the Duke is not one *that interferes* with *what* he has no control *over*'.

13. 'Prejudices are notions or opinions *which* the mind entertains without knowing the grounds and reasons of them, and *which* are assented to without examination' (Berkeley). The 'which' in both cases should be 'that', but the relative may be entirely dispensed with by participial conversion : 'prejudices are notions or opinions *entertained* by the mind without knowing the grounds and reasons of them, and *assented* to without examination'.

'The political and moral system of Mahomet is *that which* (*what, such as*) might be expected from one *who aimed* (*aiming*) only at personal aggrandisement, and *who had* (*having*) no generous views beyond.'

'He who thinks that sovereign power is too great, and would desire to limit it, can do so only by setting up a greater'; 'he that, *thinking* sovereign power too great, desires'.

14. The too frequent repetition of 'who' and 'which' may be avoided by resolving them into the conjunction and personal or other pronoun : 'In such circumstances, the utmost that Bosquet could be expected to do was to hold his ground, (*which*) *and this* he did'.

31. One of the uses of Pronouns is **to save the repetition of a Noun**; as 'John is come; *he* has not been long'.

This may be effected by various other means.

(1.) *By some more general designation;* as in Milton : 'Thus spoke the *tempter*, the *fiend*', for Satan. 'We went to see St. Paul's, and admired the *vast building*.'

Such general words are often advantageously combined with the relative : 'touching musical harmony, *a thing that* (equal to 'which') delighteth all ages ; a *thing* as seasonable in joy as in grief ;' 'he was naturally morose, a *peculiarity that* I do not here take into account'. Also the relative may be dispensed with : 'the nation were unanimous, a *thing* (a *circumstance*) of rare occurrence'.

(2.) *By the use of synonymes.* 'His *happiness* was much enhanced by his success ; but it was not in the nature of so great *bliss* to last.'

Under the adjective we shall see other modes of saving the repetition of the principal subject, as by 'former and latter,' 'the one and the other,' 'the first and the second,' &c.

It is a very insufficient *definition* of the pronoun to say that it saves the repetition of the noun, being wholly inapplicable to interrogatives, and to the indefinite pronouns. The relative pronouns, moreover, have in addition the force of conjunctions ; and, as we have just seen, the use of the pronoun is not the sole means of avoiding the repetition of the noun.

THE ADJECTIVE.

Definition.

I. An Adjective is a word joined to a noun to limit its application ; as '*my* hat ;' 'a *sweet* sound '.

Adjectives are commonly said to name a quality. But this can hardly apply to pronominal adjectives, as 'this,' 'our'. Moreover in the classification of adjectives, one class is those of quality ; implying that the other classes, namely, adjectives of quantity and the pronominal adjectives, are not expressive of quality. It is better to treat them as words that go along with nouns to specify or narrow their application. For example, the word 'wise' joined to the noun 'man,' signifies a more select kind of man, having the distinguishing attribute termed wisdom. Thus while the extent of the noun is narrowed, *its meaning is increased* by the adjective : 'wise men' are a smaller class than 'men', but they have one attribute in addition to what is common to men.

2. An Adjective is distinguished from a noun by its inflexion, which is for degree, or what is called **Comparison :** 'wise, wis*er*, wis*est*'; 'fertile, *more* fertile, *most* fertile'.

In our language, which admits the easy convertibility of the parts of speech, nouns are often used to discharge the office of the adjective ; as 'the *gold* ring'. These nouns are distinguished from true adjectives by not being compared : we cannot say 'gold, golder, goldest'. On the other hand, the true grammatical adjective does not undergo the noun inflexion : we do not say 'wise, (*plural*) *wises*.' By the same criterion we can distinguish an adjective from a verb used to limit a noun ; as 'a *brew* house '.

It follows from the definition, that an adjective cannot be the subject of a sentence. We cannot say '*wise* is good'. A word that merely limits can have no meaning standing alone, or without a word to limit. Such cases as '*foul* is fair', '*black* is not white', are not exceptions ; the adjective being used for the corresponding abstract noun. Hence when a sentence or clause begins with an adjective we understand that there is an inversion of the usual order ; as '*great* was the fall thereof'.

An adjective cannot qualify any part of speech but a noun. It cannot be governed by a preposition.

Classes of Adjectives.

3. I. **Pronominal Adjectives.** These are of four kinds—*Demonstrative, Interrogative, Relative, and Possessive.*

The name 'pronominal' indicates that these adjectives (this,

my, &c.) are all derived from pronouns. Indeed they have often been included among the pronouns. The reason for placing them among adjectives is that *they require a noun after them*, which the proper pronouns do not.

4. 1. Pronominal Demonstrative Adjectives : ' this ', ' that ', ' the ', ' yon ', ' yonder ', ' such '.

This (plural ' these ') applies to persons and things, and means some object near or close at hand, or nearer than some other compared object : ' *this* man ', some one close by ; ' *this* house ', the house that we are in or near ; ' *this* is my own, my native land '.

' This ' was originally the form joined to *neuter* nouns.

In a succession of things, ' this ' means the nearest—either the last said, or the next to be mentioned. ' After *this* speech ' refers to what has just been, or is just going to be, delivered: ' I will put *this* supposition ' is what is to come next.

That (plural ' those ') applies also to persons and things, and means something at a distance. ' *That* man ' is some one not close by. ' This ' and ' that ' are correlative or contrasting words ; the one excludes or opposes the other.

' That ' was originally the *neuter* form of the adjective.

When two persons, things, or facts have been mentioned, the first in order is sometimes recalled by ' that,' the second by 'this,' in imitation of the Latin pronouns *ille* and *hic*. Other forms for the same purpose are ' the one ' and ' the other ', ' the first ' and ' the second ', ' the first named ' and ' the last named ', ' the former ' and ' the latter '. Sometimes, as in the second of the following lines, ' these ' and ' those ' mean ' some ' and ' others ', with merely subordinate reference to comparative proximity :

> ' Fortune her gifts may variously dispose,
> And *these* be happy called, unhappy *those* ;
> But Heaven's just balance equal will appear,
> While *those* are placed in hope, and *these* in fear.'

The frequent ellipsis of the noun with the demonstrative adjectives gives them the character of demonstrative pronouns : ' after *that*, I shall say no more ' ; ' *this* being granted '. These adjectives also often help to save the repetition of the main subject, by being joined to a more general noun. Thus, instead of repeating the name ' Cæsar ', we may designate him ' that general '. ' that Roman ', ' that conqueror '.

The, a modification of 'that', is commonly called the Definite Article. It is usually explained along with 'a' or 'an', called the Indefinite Article.

Yon and **yonder** are chiefly applied to things at some distance: '*yonder* ivy-mantled tower'.

The form 'yond' is now dropt: '*yond* star that's westward from the pole' (*Hamlet*).
Compare the German *jener* ('that').

Such is partly demonstrative, having a reference also to quality and quantity. '*Such* toil in *such* an atmosphere was too much for them.'

'Such' is the modern form of the old '*swilc*',= *swi-lic*, '*so-like*', 'like that'.
Compare the German *solch*.

5. The adverbial substitutes for the Demonstrative Adjectives are the same as for the Demonstrative Pronouns: 'so', 'thus', 'then', 'there', (and the compounds, 'herein', 'therein', &c.), 'hence', 'thence', 'hither', 'thither'. These substitutes cannot be used where nominatives are required. '*Here, there,* lies,' are equivalent to 'in this place', 'in that place'.

Both variety and elegance are attained by the employment of these adverbs as demonstratives. The remarks made respecting 'where', 'when', &c., as equivalents of the relative pronouns, are applicable to the present class of words: '*here* is the point'; '*there's* the rub'; '*herein* is love'; '*then* was the time'.

6. 2. Pronominal Interrogative Adjectives: 'what', 'which', 'whether', and compounds.

What applies to both persons and things: '*what* man?' '*what* woman?' '*what* country?' 'I see *what* friends and read *what* books I please.'

'What' was originally a *neuter* pronoun. By the 13th century it had come to be used adjectively with nouns of all genders.

Which is used similarly: '*which* man, or men?' '*which* woman, or women?' '*which* country or countries?'

In its earlier use, 'which', like 'such,' implied also quality and quantity.

Whether is now disused: '*whether* case is the better?'

7. 3. Pronominal Relative Adjectives: 'which', 'what', and compounds.

Which applies to all genders and both numbers: 'Here we were met by the lieutenant, *which* officer was to show us over the ship'; 'the army refused to march, *which* circumstance disconcerted all his plans'.

Various substitutions are generally preferred: 'we were met by the lieutenant, *who* was, &c.', or, '*an officer that* was'; 'the army refused to march, *which—a circumstance that—and this—* disconcerted all his plans'.

What is used in much the same way: '*what* friends he gained he kept'; '*what* time the floods lift up their voice'; 'you may take *whatever* books you choose'.

8. 4. Pronominal Possessive Adjectives: 'my', 'mine', 'our', 'ours', 'thy', 'thine', 'your', 'yours', 'his', 'her', 'hers', 'its', 'their', 'theirs'. These are the possessives of the Personal and Demonstrative Pronouns.

The double forms 'my, mine', 'our, ours', 'thy, thine', 'your, yours', 'her, hers', 'their, theirs', have distinct uses. The first form is used with nouns like any other adjectives, as '*my* book'; '*your* house'; '*their* liberty'; the other form is employed in predication, and in other cases where the noun does not immediately follow; as 'the book is *mine*'; 'the house is not *yours*'; 'that is your opinion, *mine* is very different'. In the translation of the Bible, 'thine' and 'mine' are used with nouns beginning with a vowel or with 'h': '*mine* eyes have seen *thy* salvation'; '*mine* honour', &c. A similar difference exists between 'none' and 'no'; as 'Thy kingdom hath *none*, end at all'; 'friend hast thou *none*'; 'he gave *no* reason; in truth, *none* can be given'.

The meanings of the possessive pronouns are so well understood and so little subject to irregularity, as to need no special comment.

9. II. Adjectives of Quantity.

Setting aside the pronominal adjectives, we may include all the others under the two heads of quantity and quality : those of the one class (quantity) are few in number and peculiar in character ; the other class (quality) comprises the great body of adjectives. The adjectives of quantity are subdivided as follows :—

10. 1. Adjectives of Quantity in mass or bulk : 'much', 'little', 'great', 'small', 'some', 'any': '*much* wind'; '*little* light'; '*great* rivers'; '*some* feeling'. These are all *indefinite*.

This kind of quantity is also called *continuous* quantity, and is opposed to broken, numbered, or *discrete* quantity. Space, motion, bulk, and material being in many instances unbroken, we do not always apply numbers to designate their amount. When we desire accuracy we suppose these things divided into parts, and number the parts ; as 'ten yards'. But where we cannot do this, as in mental qualities, we use adjectives of degree, and apply qualifying words to specify the differences ; thus, 'small, very small, exceedingly small, diminutive, insignificant'; 'great, large, somewhat large, rather large, considerable, vast, huge, immense, enormous, infinite'; 'middling, average, moderate, ordinary, sober', &c.

'Some' and 'any' are applied also to number.

11. 2. Adjectives of Quantity in Number. Under this we have various kinds.

(1.) Definite Numeral Adjectives ; as '*eight* days' (*cardinal* number) ; 'the *eighth* day' (*ordinal* number).

The *cardinal* numbers—one, two, three—denote totals made up to the amount of the number- two, five, fifty, &c. The *ordinal* numbers indicate a series, and state the place of an individual in the series : the 'fifth' marks one object at a certain remove from the commencement.

We may include also the *multipliers*, 'single', 'double', 'twofold', 'triple', 'threefold', 'quadruple', &c.; and the combination of the numerals with particular subjects, as '*bi*-ennial', '*quadri*lateral', '*hepta*gonal'. These have also the meaning of quality.

An, or a, the Indefinite Article, is the numeral adjective 'one', with a somewhat altered signification.

None, No, expresses the absence, negation, or privation of anything.

'None' is the old English 'nan', made up of ne + an ('not one'), and 'no' is a shortened form, like 'a' from 'an'.

These words must be followed by the singular or plural, according to the meaning. An ancient Greek disbelieving his religion would have said there are 'no Gods'; a Jew, there is 'no God'. In the union with plural nouns, the derivation of 'none, no' is forgotten. So the common expression 'no one' is, in this regard, tautological, being literally 'not one one'.

Another is 'an-*other*', 'a second', 'one more', in addition to whatever number has gone before.

In old English, 'other' was used as an ordinal where we now use 'second'.

A derived meaning of 'another' implies the sense of difference : 'that is *another* (= *a different*) question'.

Both means two taken together, and is opposed to the distributives 'either' (one of two), and 'neither', (none of two).

This word, being often used without the noun, assumes the character of a pronoun.

12. (2.) Indefinite Numeral Adjectives ; as, '*many* days', '*any* books', '*all* men'. These express number, but not in the definite form of numeration.

Many, although plural in meaning, can be joined with a singular noun preceded by 'a': '*many a* man'.

This usage dates from the beginning of the 13th century.

Any—old English '*œnig*', from **'an'** ('one')—means 'one', but no one in particular : '*any* knife will do'. It was early applied to plural nouns also : '*any* trees', '*any* men', it matters not which, nor how many.

After negative words 'any' renders the exclusive sense emphatic : 'without *any* remainder', 'not *any* doubt'. The application to mass or bulk has been already mentioned (§ 10) : '*any* meat', '*any* wool'.

The old negative '*nœnig*' (ne-ænig) disappeared in the thirteenth century. 'None' and 'not any' take its place.

An, a, while indicating definitely *one* individual and no more, means no one in particular. Hence it is called the *Indefinite* article.

Some indicates one individual not particularised, or denotes an uncertain portion of an entire class or number: '*Some* enemy has done this'; 'give him *some* apples'.

'Some' has various meanings. In strict logic it signifies 'not none', a certain number, but how many not stated—*some at least*. There is a more popular meaning, which implies less than the whole, 'some only', or '*some at most*'. '*Some* men are wise' insinuates that there are other men not wise. Hence the *alternative* signification: 'some believed', and 'some (others) believed not'. '*Some* fifty years ago' is a very old idiom for expressing an approximate number.

The application to mass or bulk has been already mentioned (§ 10): '*some* wood', '*some* mischief'.

Certain is a small select number. Applied in the singular it means a particular and known individual.

Several, the Distributive Adjective, is also used to mean a small number without reference to distribution: 'he entered with *several* followers'; '*several* of the palace towers were toppled to the earth'.

Sundry and **divers,** also originally meaning 'separate', are now less frequently used to signify a small and indefinite number: 'for *sundry* weighty reasons'; '*divers* townspeople'. Compare also **different** and **various:** 'for *various* (or *different*) reasons'.

Few is opposed to 'many'. '*Few, few* shall part where *many* meet.' 'A few' is some—not many.

Not a few is a more emphatic 'many'; the denying of an opposite being often a stronger form of the affirmative. '*Not* inconsiderable' is perhaps a little less than 'considerable'.

Most, the largest number.

All is opposed alike to 'none' and to 'some'.

Whole, 'or total', is opposed to 'part', and hence to 'some'.

13. (3.) Distributive Numeral Adjectives; as '*each*' man', '*neither*' way'. These are 'each', 'either', 'neither', 'several', 'every', 'other'.

Each is employed to denote two or more things taken separately : 'Simeon and Levi took *each* man his sword'. 'Each' is a singular word.

When applied to two, 'each' is opposed to 'either', any one of the two, as well as to 'both', or the two collectively : 'I resolved to compare the accounts of my two friends, allowing for the prejudice of *each*, and to form my judgment upon *both*, without adhering strictly to *either*'. The correlative of 'each' is 'other', as seen in the elliptical expression 'bear *each other's* burdens'.

Either means any one of two things. 'Give me a pen or a pencil ; *either* will serve my purpose '; that is, a pen will serve, or, in the absence of a pen, a pencil will serve.

'Either' is often used where the proper adjective would be 'each', but not so often now as formerly. 'The King of Israel, and Jehoshaphat, King of Judah, sat *either* (for *each*) of them on his throne.' 'There was a huge fireplace at *either* (more properly *each*) end of the hall.'

Neither excludes each of two things ; it means— not the one and not the other : 'Truth may lie on both sides, on either side, or on *neither* side'.

Several refers to an indefinite number, and is usually joined to a plural noun : 'they went to their *several* homes'.

Every means each individual of a whole collection separately stated or considered : 'give *every* man his due'.

'Every' is a compound of '*ever*-each'; it appeared about the beginning of the 13th century. Excepting in such idiomatic phrases as 'each other', it might be almost generally substituted for 'each'. 'Every' is an emphatic word for 'all', as it seems to address the individuals separately : 'England expects *every* man to do his duty '; 'not *every* one that saith unto me'. '*Every* three years ' is an admitted idiom.

: **Other**, opposed to 'one', is the second or alterna-
tive of a couple—a dual form : 'Both the hills, the *one*
held by the royal troops, and the *other* by their enemies,
were alive with armed men'.

'No other' has the more indefinite signification of 'none
besides or anywhere'. Followed by 'than' it is the same as
'none but'. By an incidental consequence, 'the other' may
point out *contrariety*; as 'on the *one* side of the river stood our
army, on the *other*, the enemy'. The meaning of *addition*
comes naturally to attach to the word : 'get as much *other*
knowledge as you can '. 'The *other* day' is an idiom for 'lately'.

14. III. Adjectives of Quality ; as 'a *broad*
way ', 'a *heavy* weight', 'a *prudent* man'.

These embrace the great body of adjectives, and are co-exten-
sive with human knowledge. They could be classified only by
referring to the sciences, or different departments of knowledge ;
as mathematics, natural history, morals, &c. Everything that
can be pointed out as a property, power, or agency, is liable to
be expressed as an adjective, so as to qualify some object. In
Roget's *Thesaurus of Words and Phrases*, a classification of
human knowledge is given as a basis for the classification of
words according to their meaning, and it will be found that the
words thus arranged are nouns, adjectives, and verbs ; and there
is hardly any meaning that cannot appear in all the three forms.

The nouns least suited to become adjectives are the names of
natural classes or kinds, as 'tree', 'horse', 'monkey'; because
these objects contain too many qualities to be predicated of any-
thing besides themselves. We cannot well have a thing different
from a tree and possessing all the characters of a tree ; hence
when we derive an adjective from tree, as 'arborescent', we
mean only the form of a tree, and not all the attributes. So
'manly', 'leonine', or 'lionlike' *merely indicate some prominent
character* of a man, or of a lion, and do not transfer the whole
of the attributes of a man or a lion to something that is neither.

Adjectives formed from the names of metals, minerals, woods,
&c., generally signify '*made from*' these materials.

Adjectives derived from the names of great natural objects,
often mean only a *reference* to those objects ; as the 'the *solar*,
the *lunar* tables'—tables *respecting* the sun or moon.

15. The class of Adjectives derived from proper
names, and called **Proper Adjectives, are princi-
pally adjectives of quality**; as the '*Socratic*

Method', which means a certain peculiar method, invented or employed by Socrates.

Some proper adjectives might be looked upon as contributing to form proper names; as '*English* law', '*French* literature', the '*Elizabethan* Age'.

The Articles.

The articles are of great value in our language. They indicate three different forms of the noun, each with a separate meaning: '*a* virtue', '*the* virtue', and 'virtue', are all distinct.

16. An or **A** is called **the Indefinite Article:** '*a* horse' means no one horse in particular. It gives the species or kind of thing wanted, and leaves the choice of the individual free.

The indefinite article is the unemphatic form of the numeral '**one**', and has a meaning of its own, different from the numeral. 'Give me *a* pen', means 'give me an object of the species ' pen ''; 'give me *one* pen', lays emphasis upon *one*, and implies that one is asked for, and not two or three. 'A horse, a horse, my kingdom for a horse,' is any horse, anything that is a horse.

The article, having a singular meaning, is a sign of the singular number, and is used with all singular nouns (provided they are such as admit of the plural). Thus we do not say 'house', 'table', 'star', but '*a* house', '*a* table', '*a* star'. Hence it is used with general or class names, and not with proper names (Adam, Mary), nor with names of material (air, gold), nor with abstract names (wisdom, bravery). When class nouns have no plural change (sheep, cannon), the presence or absence of the article is a mark of the number (a sheep, sheep). When 'a' is prefixed to a proper name (*a* Mr. Brown), one of a class is meant.

17. A is used before a consonant, and before 'h' sounded, 'y', or 'w': '*a* meal', '*a* house', '*a* year', '*a* world'. **An** is used before a vowel, and before silent 'h'; as '*an* ounce', '*an* hour'.

Many of the best writers, as Macaulay, use *an* before 'h' (not silent) when the accent is on the second syllable : '*an* historical parallel '.

Some words beginning with a vowel are pronounced as if they began with a consonantal 'y': ewe, eunuch, eulogy, European, useful, &c. Before such words some writers use 'an ', but most use 'a', which is preferable: '*a* ewe', '*a* European difficulty', '*a* useful contrivance'.

18. The is called **the Definite Article,** because it points out one object definitely : '*the* horse' means some one horse in particular.

'The' is a weaker form than the demonstrative 'that'.

'That' in the first instance supposes something actually seen by being pointed out : as when we say, pointing to a candle, 'bring me *that* candle'. When we cannot point to a thing, we may mark it out by some description : '*that* candle *which had just been lit*'. Such descriptions when fully given have the form of the adjective clause, with a relative of restriction : '*that* man whom (that) you see'. As a lighter form, we employ 'the' instead of 'that' :—'*the* candle which (that) has just been lit' ; '*the* man whom (that) you see'. A single individual, person or thing, is pointed out by some circumstance that applies to him or it, and not to any other.

These adjective clauses of description are often shortened, by leaving out whatever is not essential to the meaning. Thus 'the man *that stands in the doorway*', may be 'the man *standing in the doorway*', or still shorter, 'the man *in the doorway*', the verb 'standing' being understood. In such cases what is left is an adverb phrase, and this is one of the most frequent accompaniments of the definite article :—'The way (*that leads*) *to the castle*' ; 'the tree *before the house*' ; 'the church *on the hill*' ; 'the water *of the river*'. The single-word adverb may also be used :—'the *evening* star' is the contraction for 'the star *that shines in the evening*' ; it might have been the 'star *in the evening*' ; or 'the star *of evening*' ; but usage prefers 'the *evening* star'. Any one of the forms is distinctive of a particular star, and that is enough.

When the important fact is given in the verb itself, the verb must be retained, whatever else is left out :—' Bring the candle *that has been lighted*', if made shorter, must be 'the *lighted* candle'. The circumstance that distinguishes this candle from the rest is its being lighted, and, therefore, the verb must be kept to show what individual is pointed at by 'the'. 'The *standing* stones' ; 'the *coming* race'.

An Adjective, especially in the superlative degree, may serve the same end as the participle :—'the *broad* walk' is supposed to be so well contrasted with all other walks by its breadth, that to give this adjective is to point to one walk exclusively. So, 'the *great* pyramid', 'the *black* hole'. 'The *heaviest* metal' is the one metal platinum.

A Noun may be the defining word : 'the *salt* lake is a contraction from 'the lake *that contains salt*' ; and, if there is only one

such, the article is properly used to point out an individual. So, 'the *granite* formation', 'the *Atlantic* cable', 'the *Pitt* ministry'.

The article may be used without any specifying accompaniments, as '*the* fire', '*the* hill', '*the* street', '*the* general', '*the* lion', '*the* mind', '*the* Bar', '*the* rich'. The shortening is here carried to the very utmost; the defining circumstances are left out altogether. This is because the person addressed knows what is meant. We say '*the* fire', instead of '*the* fire *that is in this room*', because we are speaking to a person in the room, and using language that precludes all other fires. When we say '*stir the* fire', we can mean only the fire that is in the room: if we did not mean that, we should have to use defining words— 'go and stir *the bedroom* fire'. So, '*the* hill' means some one hill near and familiar; '*the* street' is the street that is close by, or where we are living at the time, or that has been already mentioned or defined.

'*The* lion' is a shorter way of saying, 'the species of animals named the lion'. So with '*the* rose', '*the* potato', '*the* palm', among plants. '*The* French' is the people or nation having that name.

'*The* rich', '*the* powerful', '*the* great', '*the* miserable', are phrases that leave out the class name—men or human beings— as being readily understood, and merely give the name of the selection intended, which selection, as being one and definite, receives the article.

'*The* true', '*the* just', '*the* good', '*the* lawful', '*the* expedient', are other forms of the abstract nouns—truth, justice, goodness, lawfulness, expediency. They may be considered as shortened, for 'the things that are true', 'the things or actions of men, that are just', &c. Only the essential word is retained; the rest can be supposed.

'The' with a comparative, as in '*the* more, *the* better', does not show the ordinary use of the definite article; but is a survival of its ancient ablative form in the stronger demonstrative sense of 'that'. '*Thy* (*the*) ma, *thy* (*the*) bet' is literally '*by that* ('or *by so much*) more, *by that* (or *by so much*) better'; like the Latin '*quo* magis, *eo* melius'. 'They will ask *the more*', does not properly exemplify a transitive verb with an object.

Scotticisms *in the use of the Articles.*—There are various Scotticisms in connexion with the articles:—'How much the pound is it?' (what is it a pound?); 'sixpence *the* piece' (a piece); '*the* sugar is cheaper' (sugar); 'go to (*the*) school'; 'say (*the*) grace'; 'a justice of (*the*) peace'; 'up (*the*) stairs'; 'he is studying (*the*) Botany'.

The names of diseases are recognised as proper nouns: 'he

has caught cold', 'he died of consumption, of typhus'. It is an impropriety to treat them as class nouns, and prefix the article—*the* cold, *the* fever.

'From Tweed to Tay' is a poetical usage; for 'from *the* Tweed to *the* Tay'. 'Not worth (*a*) sixpence.' '*The* day' (to-day).

'Who breaks a butterfly upon *a* wheel', is given by Lowth as an error of the article. The meaning is definite: '*the* wheel'.

To drop the article from words that it has usually been joined to has a personifying effect. When we say 'society' instead of '*the* society', we treat society as a person. So with 'Government' for '*the* Government'. The Americans say 'Community thinks so too'.

Substitutes for the Adjective.

19. The Adjective Clause is the longest and fullest equivalent to the Adjective; it is a sentence serving to limit a noun in the same manner as the Adjective: 'the way *that he ought to go*' is 'the *right* way'; 'accidents *that result in death*' are '*fatal* accidents'; 'an attempt *that has no chance of succeeding*' is 'an *impossible* attempt'.

The Adjective Clause is more fully exemplified afterwards (see ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES). We have now seen that it is by contracting Adjective Clauses that we obtain the short expressions with the Definite Article. In the same way we explain the extensive employment of Nouns as Adjectives, and the less frequent use of Adverbs and Prepositions.

20. The Participial Phrase gives the same meaning in a condensed form: 'accidents *resulting in death*', troops *hired to fight*' (*mercenary*), 'the knowledge *possessed by him*' (*his*), 'tribes *given to the worship of idols*' (*idolatrous*).

21. The Prepositional Phrase is a still shorter form, by an obvious ellipsis: 'the war *between Russia and Turkey*' (*Russo-Turkish*) 'disturbances *in the colonies*' (*colonial*), 'the book *before me*' (*this*).

22. Nouns employed as Adjectives: 'a *gold* crown'; 'the *cotton* districts'; the *police* regulations';

'the *Berlin* decrees'; '*Health of Towns* Act'; '*cod-liver* oil'.

These are all contracted forms : 'a *gold* crown' is 'a crown *that is made of gold*', 'a crown *made of gold*', 'a crown *of gold*'; by retaining the only essential word and putting it in the regular position of the Adjective, we say 'a *gold* crown'. So, 'the districts *where cotton is grown*'; 'the regulations *that are laid down by the police*'; the decrees *that were issued from Berlin*'; 'the Act *that was passed for improving the Health of Towns*'; 'oil *that is prepared from* the liver of the cod'.

From what has been already said as to the employment of the Definite Article, it will be seen that words are often left out that are essential to the full expression of the meaning, because the hearer can supply them from a knowledge of the circumstances.

The same noun used as an adjective has not always the same meaning : in '*gold* fields', the meaning of 'gold' is different; being the 'fields *where gold is gathered or dug*'. The word 'house' has a different application in each of the following instances—housemaid, house-top, house property, house tax, house surveyor, house fittings, house drainage, house robbery. In expressing the meaning at full in each case, a different verb would be necessary. This, however, we are often able to guess, from the meanings of the words themselves. We see that 'house tax' is likely to mean a tax imposed upon the owners of houses. In other cases, the circumstances or the context will show what is the connection intended.

23. The Possessive forms of Nouns and Pronouns may serve the purpose of the Adjective :

'*God's* commands' are '*the divine* commands'; 'a *mother's* care' is '*motherly* or *maternal* care'; '*whose* image is this?'

Again the equivalence to the clause may be shown : '*the* commands *that God has issued*', '*such* care *as a mother bestows*', '*an* image *that represents whom* is this?'

24. Adverbs and Prepositions may also occasionally be employed for Adjectives.

This is possible by leaving out part of the complete expression. 'The king *that then reigned*' is made 'the *then* king.'. 'The *down* train' is a shortened form of 'the train *that goes down*'. '*After* ages', 'ages *that are to come after* (*the present*)'; 'the *above* discourse', 'the discourse *that has been given above* (*the point where we now are*)'.

Co-ordinating or Predicate Adjectives.

25. The Predicate of a sentence is often made up of **an Incomplete Verb and an Adjective :** ' the rose *is red* ', ' the wind *became violent* ', ' the king turned *pale* ', ' it *is growing colder* ', ' she *was pronounced blameless* '.

26. Adjectives in the Predicate are not restrictive, but **co-ordinating**. They do not narrow the class mentioned, but express some new meaning that adds to what we know of it.

In the designation ' fixed stars ', the adjective ' fixed ' narrows the class ' stars ', and increases its signification, so that the subject denotes not all ' stars ', but such stars as are fixed : this is the usual purpose of an adjective joined to a noun. In the saying—' the fixed stars are *remote* '—the adjective ' remote ' does not farther narrow the class ' fixed stars ', but predicates, or says, of them that they are ' remote ' ; that they belong to the class ' remote or distant things '. If we fill in a supposed ellipsis, writing ' the fixed stars are remote *things, stars,* &c. ', then ' remote ' is restrictive, limiting ' things ', ' stars ', &c., but not limiting ' the fixed stars '.

27. Many Adjectives prefixed to Nouns are not restrictive, but co-ordinating, or predicate Adjectives.

This can be known only from the sense.

When an adjective is prefixed to a proper or singular name, it cannot be restrictive. ' *Brave* soldiers ' expresses a select class of soldiers, possessing, in addition to the qualities of all other soldiers, the quality of being brave. But ' brave Curtius ' cannot restrict Curtius : an individual cannot be restricted. The meaning is—' Curtius, *who was brave* ; it is a short way of mentioning Curtius, and of saying also that Curtius was a brave man.

' Glorious Apollo ' is ' Apollo, *who is glorious* '. It names Apollo, and adds that he is glorious.

THE VERB.

Definition.

I. The Verb is the part of speech concerned in predication; that is, in affirming or denying —in presenting something to be believed or disbelieved, something that can be acted on. There can be no sentence without a Verb. 'Milton *wrote* Paradise Lost'; 'the sun *shines*'; 'the sea *is* calm'.

In affirmation, as has been seen, there must always be two things, a subject and a predicate. The subject is expressed by a noun or its equivalent; the predicate always contains a verb. Whenever any word has the effect of predicating or affirming, it is from that circumstance a verb. But verbs have the further grammatical distinction of being inflected to express varieties of time, person, number, manner of action, &c. A verb proper is thus distinguished from a word belonging to some other part of speech that may be used in predication. The adverb 'away' may be employed for the verb 'go', but it is not on that account a true grammatical verb; we do not say 'I away, thou awayest, they awayed'.

Classes of Verbs.

2. I. Transitive Verbs :—The fire *warms* the room.

Here 'warm' is called *transitive*, because the action *passes over* to and affects a certain object, 'the room'. This is contrasted with another class of verbs exemplified by 'the fire *glows*', where the action, 'glowing', is said not to pass away from, but to adhere to, the fire. It is with a transitive verb that we have a sentence containing subject, action, and object, in other words, the completion of the predicate by an object.

Transitive verbs are construed in the passive voice :—' Watt *invented* the steam-engine', 'the steam-engine *was invented* by Watt'.

Reflexive Verbs are transitive verbs with the same individual as both subject and object : '*I laid me* down', '*they contradicted themselves*', 'the king's *policy developed itself*'.

Reciprocal Verbs are transitive verbs used in the expression of mutual action and reaction of subject and object: ' *they help each other* '.

There is nothing peculiar in the verbs themselves; they are ordinary transitive verbs; but from the circumstances of their use they seldom take the passive form. 'They were contradicted by themselves' is not a usual form, being quite unnecessary; but we may say 'they were contradicted by their own evidence,' or such-like. 'They *help each other* ' is simply elliptical for 'they *help ; each helps (the) other(s)* '; and the passive construction is equally rare in this case.

3. II. Intransitive Verbs:—Come, lie, sit, stand, sleep, walk, run, speak, bark, wonder, groan, breathe, live, die.

These give a complete meaning without an object :—' He *comes* ', ' they *run* ', ' I *wonder* ', ' we shall all *die* '. ' After life's fitful fever, he *sleeps* well.'

One of the innumerable ways of shortening speech is to leave out the object of a verb, and express the action *generally*, or without referring to any object in particular. Thus the verb ' see ' is a transitive verb; it needs an object, or something to be seen : 'the child *sees the candle* '. Yet we have this expression :—' The new-born child *sees*, the puppy is blind '. The verb now expresses the power of seeing things in general, and not any one thing in particular. So, 'men *build* houses' (tran.) ; 'men *build*, and time *pulls down* ' (intrans.). ' Blest be the art that can *immortalise*.' ' Keep (for *keep yourself*, reflexive) out of the way '.

Intransitive Verbs converted into Transitives.—Intransitive verbs are very often modified by adverbial expressions in the form of preposition and noun ; as ' I wonder *at his zeal* '; ' they came *to the resolution* '; ' his friends stood *by him* '. By an allowable process, the prepositions in such cases become adverbs united to the verbs, constituting them compound verbs, and rendering them transitive likewise : what was the object of the preposition being now the object of the verb. Thus we have the verbs ' wonder at,' ' come to,' ' stand by,' ' speak to,' ' ride about ' (the town, the fields), which are often transitive in the fullest sense, as tested by the passive construction : ' his zeal *was wondered at* '; ' the resolution *was come to* '; ' the servant *was spoken to* '.

The verbs termed ' Causative ' are a class of Transitive verbs, formed from Intransitive. ' He *sets* ' is ' he *causes to sit* ', So

'stay, lay, fell, raise, soak, drench, dip,' &c., are short ways of giving the sense of 'cause or make to stand, lie, fall, rise, suck, drink, dive,' &c.

Some intransitive verbs are made transitive and causative without any change : 'the horse *walks*' (intrans.) ; 'the groom *walked* the horse' (trans.) ; 'the wood *floated*', (intrans.) ; 'the raftsman *floated* the wood down the river' (trans.).

Many intransitive verbs take a cognate noun after them, which is rather an adverbial modification than a true object ; as 'they *ran a race*,' 'I have *fought a good fight*,' '*sleep* the *sleep* that knows no waking'. Yet, as in the prepositional phrases above, the noun can be subject in the passive construction : 'a race *was run*,' &c.

4. III. Incomplete, Apposition, or Copula Verbs :—Be, become, seem, appear, grow, walk.

The verb 'be' usually needs some word to come after it in order to give a meaning : 'he *is*' means nothing (except to express simple existence) : 'he *is leader*', 'he *is strong*', 'he *is at a distance*' are sentences where the predicating verb takes some additional words—noun, adjective, or adverb—to give a complete sense.

'What seemed *the likeness of a kingly crown*' ; 'the decision appeared *to be just*' ; 'the small acorn will grow *a mighty tree*'. 'He *lived an apostle* and *died a martyr*' ; the intransitive verbs 'live' 'die,' appear here as incomplete verbs, completed by the nouns 'an apostle,' 'a martyr'.

5. Certain verbs are designated **Auxiliary Verbs**, because they contribute to make up various forms in the conjugation of the verb. 'Be,' the incomplete or copula verb by pre-eminence, is the chief ; the others are—'have', 'will', 'shall'.

6. The **Impersonal Verbs** are, strictly speaking, verbs defective in the persons, being used only with the third person singular ; they are hence called also '*unipersonal*'. Such are 'it *rains*,' 'it *snows*'.

7. Other parts of speech are sometimes used as verbs : as '*Hence; home*, you idle creatures': '*Up*, Guards, and *at* 'em'. There is in such instances an obvious ellipsis, or omission of the proper verb : '*go* hence'. Nouns and Adjectives are freely converted into verbs, and regularly conjugated as such : 'he *ages* fast', 'the sun *dries* the road'.

THE ADVERB.

Definition.

I. The Adverb limits or modifies the meaning of the Verb :—'she sings *brilliantly*'; 'they ran *well*'.

The verb usually expresses some action, or active exertion, and, as an action may be performed in many ways, words are needed to show this; the action named by the verb 'sing' may be performed with every variety of excellence, and under many circumstances; and instead of employing additional sentences to specify these modes, a single word or phrase is taken for the purpose. '*She sang here yesterday for an hour with great applause.*' Four circumstances are given as accompanying or modifying the action—one of *place,* given by the single-word adverb 'here'; one of *time* by the single word 'yesterday', and another of time by a phrase 'for an hour'; one of quality or *manner* by a phrase 'with great applause'.

When we say the adverb qualifies the verb, we mean the action expressed by the verb, which action may involve other words in addition. 'He *boldly* fought-his-way-to-the-barrier': 'boldly' qualifies the entire predicate—'fought his way to the barrier'.

The adverb is commonly said to qualify, not verbs alone, but also *adjectives and other adverbs.* This is not true generally, but applies to one of the smallest classes of adverbs, those expressing DEGREE. The attributes expressed by adjectives are usually variable in degree; and the variations are expressed by adverbs 'good, *very* good'; so with adverbs—'wisely, *very* wisely'. But the most numerous class of adverbs, the class containing ninety-nine out of a hundred of the whole—adverbs of manner or quality, could not from their nature qualify Adjectives and Adverbs. 'A being *darkly* wise' is partly a poetic figure, and partly exemplifies the practice of using adverbs of quality to express degree, through some accident in their meaning that suggests quantity. Thus 'scarcely', 'exceedingly', 'confoundedly', are in the first instance adverbs of quality or manner, but they are adopted to serve for degree.

When an adverb *seems to qualify a preposition,* it really qualifies an adverbial phrase: '*greatly* above his reach', '*much* before the time'.

An adverb may qualify a noun, but *the nouns so qualified are transmuted verbs*, or verbal nouns: 'I shall study *only* instruction', for 'only *that I may instruct*'; 'he was *fully* master of the subject', 'he fully *mastered*'. 'An *only* son' is 'an *only begotten* son'. By such abbreviations adverbs are at last taken for adjectives. 'The house *here*' is 'the house *that is* here'. Napoleon, (who was) *lately* Emperor of the French.' This is less irregular than 'the *late* Emperor'; the fact of time is more properly stated by an adverb: 'my *former* teacher' is a transformation of 'he that *formerly* taught me'.

Classes of Adverbs.

2. Before classifying adverbs according to their signification (as place, time, &c.), it is proper to advert to an important distinction running through all their classes. Most adverbs contain their meaning within themselves, and are therefore called *simple;* they might also be called absolute, or notional *;* such are 'now', 'here', 'greatly', 'delightfully'. A small number have no meaning in themselves, but refer to some adjoining clause for the meaning; as, 'when,' 'while,' 'where'. 'whether', 'whence', 'why', 'wherever', 'as', 'than', &c. These are to the other adverbs what the pronoun is to the noun, and hence they are called *relative* adverbs ; they are also connective or *conjunctive* adverbs, being in fact commonly reckoned among conjunctions. 'He came *while*' is not intelligible ; the sense is suspended till some other clause is supplied : 'He came *while I was speaking*' ; 'I know not *whence you are*'.

Most of this class are obvious derivatives of the relative 'who' (or its root); and we have seen that they are substitutes for the relative pronouns.

Taking simple and relative adverbs together, we may classify them thus :—

3. I. Adverbs of Place ; as 'here', 'there', 'without', 'above', 'near', 'apart', 'together', &c.

This includes the following regularly formed pronominal group :—

Place where.	*Motion to.*	*Motion from.*
Here	Hither	Hence
There	Thither	Thence
Where	Whither	Whence

Also the compounds, 'hitherward', 'thitherward', 'whitherward'.

4. 1. **Rest in a place :** 'here', 'there', 'where', 'by', 'near', 'yonder', 'above', 'below'.

Here, *in this* place, *this* place ; opposed to ' there ', *in that,* or some other place ; an adverbial substitute for the demonstrative ' this '.   It has metaphorical extensions to other subjects : ' *here* lies the difference '.

There, in its primitive meaning, is explained by its contrast to ' here '.   The two are coupled together in various idioms ; as ' neither *here* nor *there* ' (no matter), ' *here* a plain, *there* a river '.

' There ' has a very peculiar use.   We employ it to begin sentences without any special reference to the idea of place, and hence derive one of our idiomatic forms of syntax.   ' *There* was once a good king ' ; ' *there* was not a tree to be seen ' ; ' *there* came a voice from heaven '.   Out of the definite signification ' in that place ' has sprung an expression of mere existence.   It is not difficult to account for the transition.   To be able to say that a thing is in a certain place is to give an emphatic assurance that it exists ; and hence the localising statement has become the statement of existence.   Instead of saying ' a road is ', or ' exists ', we say ' *there* is a road '.   This idiom is found very convenient, but is apt to be abused, and the excessive use of it should be avoided.   Thus, instead of such circumlocutions as ' *there* is a sense in which that is true ', ' *there* is a plan by which you might do it ', we might with more elegance, because more briefly, say ' in one sense that is true ', ' one plan would be '.

The following sentence is an example of the effect of the form in question : ' One act James induced them to pass which would have been most honourable to him and them, if *there were* not abundant proofs that it was meant to be a dead letter '. (Macaulay.)

Where is one of our interrogative words.   In form it is an adverb, like ' here ' and ' there ' ; in use it is also a purely connective word, serving the function of a relative or of a conjunction.   ' She left the place *where* she was so happy.'   Having the original meaning of place, it has acquired the same metaphorical extensions as those two other words.   ' *Where* ignorance is bliss, 'tis folly to be wise.'   By an ellipsis easy to explain we find it employed as if it were a substantive : ' He had no *where* to lay his head ', for ' he had no *place where* he might lay his head '.   We have the compound phrase ' somewhere ', like ' somehow ', ' nohow ', &c.

Near, by, are the adverbs of nearness or proximity : ' there was no one *by* ' ; ' he stood *by* ' ; ' *by* comes a horseman '. ' By ' shows its difference from ' here ' (in this spot), in the phrase ' put by ', which means put away or remove.

Under this head we class the adverbs of *numerical order:* 'firstly' or 'first', 'secondly', 'lastly'.

5. 2. Motion to a place: 'hither', 'thither', 'whither'.

Hither, thither, are likewise an opposed and mutually explaining couple : '*to this* place', '*to that* place'; 'come *hither*', 'go *thither*'; 'where I am, *thither* ye cannot come'.

Whither is 'to what place?' as an interrogative'; '*to which* place', as a relative.

6. 3. Motion from a place: 'hence', 'thence', 'whence'.

Hence, thence, whence; '*from this* place', '*from that* place', 'from *what* or *which* place'. 'Hence' is extended to time, 'a week *hence*'; also to reason or cause, as '*hence* (from this cause) it is'; likewise from this source or origin: 'all other faces borrowed *hence* their light, their grace'. The extension to time hardly takes place with 'thence' and 'whence', but these share in the extensions to reason or cause : 'the facts are admitted, *whence* we conclude that the principle is true'. '*From whence*' seems a tautology, or superfluity of expression, but we find it in good use : 'Who art thou, courteous stranger, and *from whence*?'

Separation in place is expressed by 'apart', 'separately', 'asunder'.

Conjunction is expressed by 'together.'

Place, in a variety of relative positions, is indicated by 'above', 'aloft', 'below', 'under', 'down', 'beyond', 'yonder', 'away', 'through', 'in', 'out', 'without', 'inwards', 'inside', 'around', 'fro', 'forth'.

The compounds with the single adverbs of place are exceedingly numerous, and many of them pass into other classes, and even into other parts of speech by metaphorical application: hereby, herein, hereupon, thereabouts, thereafter, therefore, thereof, thereon, whereas, whereby, wherefore, whereof, anywhere, elsewhere, somewhere, wheresoever, &c.

7. II. Adverbs of Time; as 'ever', 'lately', 'often', 'before', &c. Time may be present, past, or future.

8. 1. Time present. Under this we include the following : 'now', 'to-day', 'instantly', 'presently',

'still', 'forthwith', 'henceforth'; together with such phrases as 'this instant', &c.

Closely allied to this class are those adverbs that connect one thing with another in point of time, such as 'while', 'when', 'then', 'as', 'immediately'.

The word **now** is the main or typical adverb of present time, from which signification its other uses are derived.

'Immediately' is used by the Scotch, when the English use 'presently'. 'I will come *presently*' is the current English expression for 'I will lose no time', 'I will come without delay'. The strict use of 'immediately' is to make one event follow close on another in a narrative; 'he heard the news, and *immediately* set out'.

9. 2. Time past: 'before', 'heretofore', 'hitherto', 'already', 'lately', 'once', 'yesterday'.

The meaning of **once** is 'some former time not signified'.

10. 3. Time future: 'hereafter', 'afterwards', 'soon', 'henceforth', 'presently', 'immediately', 'to-morrow', 'no more'.

It will be seen that some of these (soon, presently, immediately, henceforth) have been already enumerated under present time. They express an action just about to commence, and therefore, though strictly future, they are yet also practically present.

11. 4. Duration and Repetition: 'ever', 'never', 'always', 'aye'; 'often', 'seldom', 'rarely', 'occasionally', 'frequently', 'continually', 'continuously', 'incessantly', 'perpetually', 'again', 'once', 'twice', 'daily', 'monthly', 'annually', 'periodically'.

Ever is the foremost of the class expressive of duration. Its meaning is 'at all times', or 'through all time'; and owing to the great force or impressiveness obtained through this extensive signification, we find it employed as a word of emphasis : 'if he offer *ever* so much', meaning an indefinitely large quantity. By analogy we extend the figure still farther, and say '*ever* so little', although this somewhat borders on a contradiction of the original meaning; as also does '*ever* the less' for 'one whit the less'. The same reason explains the applications of 'never'. As it excludes all time, it is a term of strong denial, and is employed for mere purposes of emphasis. 'He answered him *never* a word.'

Again means originally 'back', 'opposite', 'on the contrary', 'on the other hand', and hence 'a second time', but is not confined to this application. It serves as a conjunctive adverb, or conjunction, introducing a new sentence or paragraph, with the signification 'once more', or 'in addition'. By the phrase 'once and *again*', frequent repetition is denoted.

12. III. Degree, or Measure ; as 'much', 'little', 'very', 'far', 'exceedingly'.

These refer to the attribute of quantity, which has been seen above to be estimated in two ways, namely, by numbers, and by indefinite words.

For a scale of *intensity* beginning at the least, we have 'very little', 'little', 'slightly', 'scarcely', 'inconsiderably', 'pretty', 'moderately', 'enough', 'sufficiently', 'much', 'very much', 'greatly', 'exceedingly', 'utterly', 'thoroughly', 'generally', 'universally', 'terribly'. 'Gay', in the sense of 'very', is a Scotticism.

'Generally' has two very different meanings which are liable to occasion ambiguity. In the one sense it implies 'for the most part', or 'in the majority of instances', as 'the plan *generally* succeeded', or succeeded in the greater number of trials. In the other sense it means a general or generalised fact or attribute, something common to a whole class, as 'Animals *generally* have a nervous system', or, it is a general property of animals. The first is the most usual meaning, the second is better expressed by the phrase 'in general'.

Defect. The following may be considered as expressing quantity under the form of defect or deficiency : 'almost', 'nearly', 'little', 'less', 'least', 'hardly', 'but', 'partly', 'well-nigh'. 'Partly' is an adverb of *division*: '*partly* his, *partly* yours'.

Excess is implied by 'very', 'far', 'exceedingly', 'more', 'most', 'better', 'best', 'worst'.

Equality, or sufficiency : 'enough', 'sufficiently', 'equally', 'exactly', 'perfectly', 'truly', 'just'.

Abatement, or gradation : 'hardly', 'piecemeal', 'gradually'.

Repetition (implies number): 'seldom', 'often', 'frequently', 'once', 'twice', 'thrice', 'again', 'once more'. In the sense of *addition :* 'also', 'likewise', 'besides', 'too'.

13. There are certain important adverbs of Comparison : 'so', 'as', 'than', 'the', and 'too'. With these may be joined 'enough', 'sufficiently', and 'only'.

So, in its original etymology, is a *demonstrative pronoun,* meaning 'by that'. We have seen that it is still employed in this character. It thence became an *adverb of comparison :*

'it was *so* dark, that we could see nothing'. It was dark '*by that*, to *that measure*, namely, that we could not see'. To make the comparison, some second clause or statement is requisite. Sometimes it is used with a marked emphasis:

> ' *So* frowned the mighty combatants, that hell
> Grew darker at their frown.'

In colloquial language, we often leave the comparison unsupplied, and then the word is a mere expression of *intensity :* 'the view is *so* fine '.

The application to signify *cause and effect* is in conformity with the original meaning : 'he ran with all his might, and *so* was first'; which is to say, that 'running *in that manner*, he became first '; the relation of cause and effect being inferred from the sequence of statement.

As, etymologically, is a contraction of 'all-*so* '. In substance it is the same word as ' so ', and admits of the same interpretation. It also retains a *pronominal application* in the relative combination 'such *as* ', and perhaps in the constructions '*as* follows', '*as* regards '. The *adverbial* signification '*as* brave *as* a lion ' may be explained ' brave *by that* (or *in that degree*) *by which* (or *in which degree*) a lion is brave '. By an admitted ellipsis, we may say ' brave *as* a lion '. '*As* far *as* we can see '; '*as* two is to one, *so* is twelve to six '; two is to one *by that*, twelve is to six *by that*. ' Men are more happy, *as* they are less involved in affairs '; 'more ' (the more) completes the comparison.

'As ' passes into more remote meanings when used as a conjunction. Thus it means *time*—' he trembled *as* he spoke ' ; *reason* —' *as* (for *since*) you are of that opinion '. In combination with 'if ', the comparative signification is still apparent ; '*as if* we did not know that '. There is simply an ellipsis.

Than (formerly ' then') follows comparatives. 'He is stronger *than* you' is, in full, 'he is stronger ; *then (= next, in a lower degree) strong are* you'.

The (O. E. *thy*, abl. of demonstr. adj.)precedes comparatives. '*The* more, *the* better '=' *by that* more, *by that* better ', 'better *in that degree in which* more '. Compare ' *as* '.

Too is likewise an adverb of comparison occasionally employed in the absolute sense. Its terseness is fully appreciated in translating into other languages, as the Latin. ' He is *too* old to learn' is a happy abbreviation of ' he is so old that he is unable to learn '. When the phrase expressing the comparison is suppressed, we must understand the word in the sense of ' *more* than enough, than what is just, right, convenient, fitting, or desirable'.

> ' Oh ! that this *too, too* solid flesh would melt,
> Thaw, and resolve itself into a dew.'

Enough and **sufficiently** are also used in a similar way : ' I am old *enough* to manage my own affairs ' ; ' the irritation is *sufficiently* great to lead to war '. The longer forms would be : ' I am so old that I am able to manage my own affairs ' ; ' the irritation is so great that it may lead to war '.

The condensation may be carried even to the omission of the word of comparison, the force of which, however, is felt to be implied : ' He is not a man to put confidence in ' ; ' he had not the prudence to conceal his anger '. The longer forms would be : ' he is not so honourable (trustworthy, good, able, &c.) a man that one can put confidence in him ' ; ' he was not so prudent as to conceal his anger—that he concealed his anger '.

The important word **only,** with the synonymes ' solely ', ' merely ', ' alone ', might be included under the present head. The general meaning of ' only ' is ' this one thing by itself ', to the exclusion of other things.

14. IV. Belief and Disbelief, or Certainty and Uncertainty ; as ' truly ', ' surely ', ' certainly ', ' nay ', ' not ', ' perhaps ', ' possibly '.

This being a distinction of great and leading importance, the words that indicate the degrees of certainty and uncertainty are a marked class, although not very numerous.

For the expression of *belief* or *certainty*, we have ' certainly ', ' surely ', ' assuredly ', ' truly ', ' verily ', ' undoubtedly ', ' exactly ', ' positively ', ' precisely ', ' indeed ', ' yes ', ' yea ';* with a variety of phrases, as, ' of course ', ' by all means ', ' in, truth ', ' even so ', ' just so ', ' most assuredly ', ' by all manner of means ', ' on every ground ', ' without fail ', ' without exception ', ' beyond all doubt ', ' beyond the possibility of question ', ' to be sure '.

For the expression of *disbelief*, we have principally the great particle of negation, ' not ', or ' no ',* and phrases deriving their negative force from it : ' no ', ' not ', ' nay ', ' not so ', ' not at all ', ' no wise ', ' by no means ', ' by no manner of means ', ' on no account ', ' in no respect ', ' not in the least ',

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* The words *yes, yea, ay, no*, are called adverbs, and seem to have an adverbial force ; but, as Mr. C. P. Mason remarks, they are never used to qualify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, and therefore appear scarcely entitled to the appellation. He proposes to call them interjections ; but this too seems objectionable, as they are not outbursts of emotion, like ' alas ! ' ' hurrah ' ! and the like. They are rather a species of relative words, which express a speaker's assent or denial to a particular statement, not by repeating the statement, but by referring to it as having just been enounced. Many of the words in the above list, may be detached in the same way from the sentence that they qualify : for example—' certainly ', ' surely ', ' indeed ', &c. The adverb then stands alone by an obvious ellipsis.

'not a whit', 'not a bit', 'not a jot', 'forsooth' (an ironical phrase in modern English, but used at one time seriously, for 'verily').

For *probability, contingency*, or *uncertainty*, we have 'perhaps', 'probably', 'possibly', 'maybe', 'haply', 'mayhap', 'likely', 'perchance', 'peradventure', howbeit'.

15. V. Cause and Effect; as 'therefore', 'wherefore', 'why', 'whence', 'hence', 'thus', and numerous phrases.

Under this head we may include *instrumentality*, which meaning, however, although abundantly expressed by *phrases* and *clauses*, is seldom given by any single word.

16. VI. Manner, or Quality; as 'well', 'ill', 'wisely', 'bravely', 'softly', 'quickly', 'remarkably', 'rightly'.

As with adjectives, this is the class that includes the great body of adverbs. Of the five previous classes it is possible to give an exhaustive enumeration, but adverbs of quality make a large part of the vocabulary of the language. The mode or manner of doing an action may be very various, as we may see on a little reflection. Suppose the subject is putting something in motion; we may move quickly, steadily, violently, suddenly, abruptly, hurriedly, straight, zigzag, strongly, rightly, beautifully, unexpectedly, and so on. And every kind of action that it is possible to mention has varieties of manner peculiar to itself. Thus 'to speak', 'to sing', 'to eat', 'to look', 'to work', 'to govern', 'to die', have all their special modes, exclusive of the attributes of time, place, and degree, above enumerated; and the word, or phrase, or clause, expressive of that mode, is considered in grammar as an adverb. 'He spoke *long, clearly, to the purpose.*' 'He looked *hard, with anxiety, as if he were in earnest.*' 'He governed *wisely, with discretion, so as to gain esteem.*' 'He died *easily, without suffering, as one would have predicted.*' A word, or combination of words, answering to the interrogative 'how' is an adverb of manner, as replying to an inquiry into the special mode or circumstances of an action. If we say 'the sun shines', any one may demand a more specific account of this fact, which is known to take place in a variety of ways, and the words employed to give such more specific information are adverbs or the equivalents of adverbs: 'the sun shines *brightly,* or *with intermission,* or *so as to light up the landscape,* or *as if we were*

in the tropics'. The name for the specifying attribute of a *noun* corresponds to the adjective in grammar; the specifying attributes of the *verb* are given by the adverb. Now, from the great variety of ways and circumstances of the performance of actions, adverbs, and adverbial phrases and clauses, like adjectives and their equivalents, are necessarily innumerable.

17. Adverbs of Manner are often used to express Degree: 'seriously', 'hopelessly', 'piercingly', 'provokingly', 'inseparably', 'inextricably'.

'The patient is *seriously, hopelessly* ill'; 'the air is *piercingly* cold'; 'he was *provokingly* cool', 'they are *inseparably, inextricably* connected'.

18. The formation of adverbs from Participles is an elegant means of brevity: 'provokingly', 'knowingly', 'avowedly', 'invitingly'.

'He was *provokingly* cool' is a short way of giving the sense of 'he was *so* cool *as to provoke one—that one could not but feel provoked*'. 'They broke the law *knowingly*' is a condensation for 'they broke the law, *and they knew that they were doing so*'. 'He has *avowedly* retracted his opinion'; 'the door is *invitingly* ajar'.

Substitutes for the Simple Adverb.

19. The equivalents of the Adverb in composition are phrases and clauses.

(1.) PLACE. *Phrases:* 'I was never *in that place, quarter, town, part of the world, &c.* (= *there*)'; 'at the seat of judgment', 'in the skies', 'under the greenwood tree'. *Clauses:* '*wherever one goes* (= *everywhere*), one hears the same story'; '*where the tree falls*, there will it lie'; '*whither I go*, ye cannot come'; 'go *whence you came*'. The relative adverbs—'where', 'whither', 'whence', 'wheresoever,' &c.—are the connectives of these clauses with the main clause, while they also qualify, by the attribute of place, the verb in the dependent clause.

(2.) TIME. *Phrases:* 'Their rivalry is active even *to this day* (= *yet*)', 'every two years' (= *biennially*); 'once on a time'; 'the day before yesterday', 'next year', 'a century ago'. *Clauses:* '*while I live* (= *ever, always*, &c.) I will follow truth'; 'I will come *when I can*'; 'the thing was done *before I came*'. These clauses are introduced either by the relative adverbs of time—'ere', 'until', 'when', 'while', 'whenever'—or by the

prepositions 'before', 'after', 'since', which in this application govern clauses, instead of nouns, but are usually called conjunctions.

(3.) DEGREE. *Phrases :* 'The scene was *in a singular degree* (= *singularly*) romantic'; 'he is *so* clever *as to surprise one* (*surprisingly* clever)'; 'by ever so little', 'to a small extent', in a very intense degree'. *Clauses :* 'He is not so careful *as he ought to be* (= careful *enough*)'; 'the rain was heavier *than we anticipated*—*than* could have been anticipated (= *unexpectedly* heavy)'; 'the sea is *as deep as the mountains are high*'; '*as thy day is, so* shall thy strength be'. 'As' is the principal word employed in these clauses. The degree being expressed by comparison with some other thing as a standard, the connective required is a word or words of comparison or proportionality: *as—as, as—so, than, the* (*the* more). 'He knows more *than I* (do)'; '*the longer we live,* the more charitable we become'.

(4.) BELIEF and DISBELIEF. *Phrases :* 'Beyond doubt (= *undoubtedly, doubtless*)', 'with the highest certainty', 'with great hesitation'; *to confess the truth* (= *truly, indeed, certainly,* &c.), I do not like him.' *Clauses :* '*If my life depended on it,* I would maintain my opinion'; 'I am *as* certain *as if I had seen it* (= *perfectly* certain)'. Clauses of Belief and Disbelief are introduced by forms for Degree.

CONDITION, UNCERTAINTY. 'The King could not legislate *without the consent of his Parliament* (*phrase*)—*unless* (or *except*) *his Parliament consented, if his Parliament did not consent' (clause).* Conditional conjs. introduce these clauses.

(5.) CAUSE and EFFECT.

CAUSE. *Phrases :* '*For what purpose (= why)* are you doing this?' 'owing to these causes (= *hence, therefore,* &c.) the enterprise failed'; 'by the action of the sun,' 'by force of kindness,' 'by the influence of the government'. *Clauses :* 'The crops are bad, *because the spring was ungenial*'; 'we lost the fight, *because our numbers were reduced*'. The conjunction 'because', and its equivalents (inasmuch as, by reason that, &c.) are the connecting links in this kind of clause.

EFFECT. *Phrases :* 'To his own hurt,' 'with the highest success (= *most successfully*)'. *Clauses :* 'He stood his ground, *so that at last he triumphed*'.

(6.) MANNER generally. The *phrases* and combinations for this purpose are innumerable. 'In a manful way', &c. The *clauses* are introduced by the relative or connecting adverb 'as', upon the same principle of comparison as that involved in degree. 'He behaved *as if his all had been at stake*'; 'he falls to such perusal of my face *as he would draw it*'.

20. Other Parts of Speech are occasionally used **as Adverbs.**

Nouns : ' He sent the man *home* ' (place) ; ' he goes *to-morrow* ' *(on the morrow)* (time) ; ' he cares not *a groat* ' (degree). '*Skin* deep', '*town* made', '*stone* dead'.

This is not an unfrequent usage. We can explain it by the abbreviation of the adverbial phrases, ' on the morrow ', ' to his house, or home ', ' so much as a groat, &c.

Pronouns occasionally serve as Adverbs : ' *what* (= *why*) should he labour ?' ' *somewhat* large ' (Scotch ' *some* large ') ; ' *none* the worse'; ' I will not do this *either* '.

Adjectives often *appear* to stand where Adverbs might be expected ; as ' drink *deep* ', ' the green trees whispered *soft* and *low* ', ' this looks *strange* ', ' standing *erect* '.

We have also examples of one adjective qualifying another adjective, as ' *wide* open ', ' *red* hot ', ' the *pale* blue sky '. Sometimes the corresponding adverb is used, but with a different meaning ; as ' I found the way *easy—easily* ' ; ' it appears *clear—clearly* '. Although there is a propriety in the employment of the adjective in certain instances, yet such forms as ' *indifferent* well ', ' *extreme* bad ', are grammatical errors. ' He was interrogated *relative* to that circumstance ', should be *relatively*, or *in relation to*. It is not unusual to say ' I would have done it *independent* of that circumstance ', but *independently* is the proper construction.

The employment of Adjectives for Adverbs is accounted for by the following considerations :

(1.) In the classical languages the neuter adjective may be used as an adverb, and the analogy would appear to have been extended to English.

(2.) In the oldest English, the adverb was regularly formed from the adjective by adding ' e ', as ' soft, softe ', and the dropping of the ' e ' left the adverb in the adjective form; thus '*clœne*', adverb, became ' clean ', and appears in the phrase ' *clean* gone ' ; ' *fœste*, fast ', ' to stick *fast* '. By a false analogy, many adjectives that never formed adverbs in *-e* were freely used as adverbs in the age of Elizabeth : ' Thou didst it *excellent* ', ' *equal* (for *equally*) good ', ' *excellent* well '. This gives precedent for such errors as those mentioned above.

(3.) There are cases where the subject is qualified rather than the verb, as with verbs of incomplete predication, ‘being’ ‘seeming’, ‘arriving’, &c. In ‘the matter seems *clear*’, ‘clear’ is part of the predicate of ‘matter’. ‘They arrived *safe*’; ‘safe’ does not qualify ‘arrived’, but goes with it to complete the predicate. So : ‘he sat *silent*’, ‘he stood *firm*’. ‘It comes *beautiful*’, and ‘it comes *beautifully*’, have different meanings. This explanation applies especially to the use of participles as adverbs, as in Southey’s lines on Lodore ; the participial epithets applied there, although appearing to modify ‘came’, are really additional predications about ‘the water’, in elegantly shortened form. ‘The church stood *gleaming* through the trees’; ‘gleaming’ is a shortened predicate of ‘church’; and the full form would be : ‘the church stood *and gleamed*’. The participle retains its force as such, while acting the part of a coordinating adjective, complement to ‘stood’: ‘stood gleaming’ is little more than ‘gleamed’. The feeling of adverbial force in ‘gleaming’ arises from the subordinate participial form joined with a verb, ‘stood’, that seems capable of predicating by itself. ‘*Passing* strange’ is elliptical ; ‘passing (surpassing) *what is* strange’.

Verbs ; as ‘*smack* went the whip’; ‘he let it go *bang* at the window’; a very rare usage.

Prepositions ; as ‘I told you *before*’; ‘I have not met him *since*’; ‘we never trusted them *after*’.

THE PREPOSITION.

Definition.

I. A Preposition is a word prefixed to a Noun or its equivalent to make up a qualifying or adverb phrase :—‘Send the parcel *to* town, *in* the evening, *by* us.’

The action of sending the parcel is limited by three adverb phrases ; and the word used in each that goes with the noun or pronoun to make the phrase, is a distinct part of speech, called the Preposition : ‘to’, ‘in’, ‘by’, are prepositions.

This is the only definition that *effectually separates prepositions from conjunctions.* A conjunction could not be used with a noun to make a qualifying phrase. We could not say—‘Send the parcel *if* town, *though* the evening, *or* us’.

The regular place of a preposition is between a verb and a noun :—' taken *by* force '. Where one noun is connected with another by a preposition, there is usually a contraction :—' We went from house *to* house ', ' we went *from (one)* house, *and we went to (another)* house '. ' Your Father *in* heaven ' ; ' your Father *who dwells in* heaven '.

Sometimes a preposition is joined with an *adverb* (see Noun, §21) : ' until *now (= the present time)* ', ' for *ever (= all time)* ', ' from *abroad* ', ' not above *once* or *twice* ', ' by *to-morrow* '.

In such expressions as ' in *all* ', ' in *brief* ', ' for *good* ', ' at *last* ', ' for *better* ', ' for *worse* ', prepositions are combined with *adjectives*, instead of nouns. The ellipsis of the noun is obvious.

Case-Prepositions.

2. Certain Prepositions specially correspond to the case-endings of nouns in the classical languages ; these are—' of ', ' to ', ' for ', ' from ', ' by ', ' with '.

3. Of corresponds to the *possessive* case in English, and the *genitive* case in other languages.

As the possessive inflection is used only in a small number of nouns, and not uniformly in those, we are dependent on this preposition for conveying the meaning of the possessive case.

' Of ' expresses a variety of relations, which may be traced up to a common source. The original import of the root was ' from ', ' separation ', ' proceeding from ', which easily led to the meaning now most generally signified, namely, ' belonging to ' or ' referring to '. For example, the ' force *of* the wind ' means a property *proceeding from* the wind, or *manifested by* it, and therefore *inhering in* it, or *belonging to* it.

(1.) The partitive meaning. ' Of ' is used *to relate the part of anything to the whole:* ' the wing *of* the eagle ', ' the walls *of* the town ', ' the banks *of* the river '.

Any complicated object may be considered as made up of its parts. A house has a foundation, walls, a roof, doors, windows, rooms, &c. ; these are its *parts*, or mechanical divisions. Any

one of these being specified, we signify that it belongs to the house by the preposition 'of': 'the roof *of* the house'.

So we may say 'the army *of* Britain', 'the children *of* the family', 'the property *of* the corporation'. These are all separable parts of the wholes that they severally belong to.

A fraction or division of a total is expressed by 'of' on the same principle : 'a third *of* the proceeds'; 'few *of* the host survived'; 'a tithe *of* all he possessed'; 'one ninth *of* the remainder'. Hence the adjectives of fullness or want are naturally followed by 'of'; 'full *of* compassion, *of* hope'; 'destitute *of* clothes, *of* money, *of* all things'.

(2.) **The attributive meaning.** 'Of' is used *to connect an abstract property, or quality, with the concrete;* as 'the strength *of* the lion', 'the lightness *of* air', 'the temper *of* steel'.

There is a second mode of conceiving a complex or concrete object, namely, as made up of *properties,* or *attributes,* inseparable from the object, except in thought. Thus we may speak of the *length* of a room, but we cannot cut off the length from the other dimensions and properties. We cannot separate the *weight,* the *colour,* the *value,* of gold from the rest of the qualities. These are called *abstract* qualities; they are spoken of in language as inhering in the total, or the concrete; and when any one of them is specified, the preposition 'of' is the connecting word : as 'the sweetness *of* honey', 'the shape *of* the mountain', 'the colour *of* the snow'.

These two meanings are simple and intelligible, being two modes of the same general idea of 'possession', 'property', or 'belonging'. But we find other meanings apparently very remote from this leading idea.

(3.) **The reference meaning.** 'Of' may serve *to specify a subject or make a reference;* as 'the Book *of* Proverbs'. Here 'Proverbs' indicates the subject that the 'book' refers to. 'The love *of* our neighbour'; love with regard to, or directed upon, a certain party specified as our neighbour. '*Of* man's first disobedience—sing, heavenly Muse'.

This meaning may have grown up thus. If we say 'a book *of* problems', we may be understood as implying, that of the whole class of things named problems, as much is taken as will make a book,—literally, 'a bookful of problems'. 'A treatise *of* geometry', is a portion of the whole subject of geometry,

taken and included in a treatise. The meaning of reference would thus be a branch of the partitive meaning. It is to be noticed, however, that this application of the word is not so frequent now as formerly. We prefer 'on' to 'of' in specifying a subject under discussion : as 'on geometry', 'on plants', &c. 'The love of our neighbour' is ambiguous if we allow it to mean 'towards our neighbour'. Properly this should be interpreted (attributively) 'the love manifested by our neighbour to us'; for the other case we should use 'to': 'love to God', 'love to man'. In the phrase 'the fear of God', the meaning of reference is exclusively involved; the 'fear' is a passion belonging properly to us, and is indicated by the possessive of the person, 'man's fear', 'the wicked's fear'; but there must be an object to the passion, some one who, as it were, shares the property of it; there is an attribute belonging to God that inspires the fear, and this probably leads to our employing 'of' in order to indicate this object.

'Sing of man's first disobedience' is 'let your song arise out of—and hence take for its subject, be in reference to—man's first disobedience'. 'Tell me truly what thou think'st of him'; —that is, 'about, regarding him'.

Such a phrase as 'a common of turbary', is a pure case of reference; the acceptation is 'a common in so far as regards the right of cutting turf'. 'Right of pasturage' is a 'right having reference to pasturage'.

(4.) **The Adjective meaning.** The Preposition, with its Noun, has often the force of an Adjective; as 'a crown of gold', for 'a golden crown'; 'an act of grace' (a gracious act); 'a pearl of great price' (a precious pearl).

This too might be explained on the partitive principle. 'A crown of gold' we may interpret as meaning the quantity of gold taken and employed to make up a crown. In 'a man of courage', we may imagine that of the courage contained in the world a certain portion is represented as inhering in a man,—a man filled or supplied with courage. This construction is the chief example of the adjective phrase.

(5.) **The Apposition meaning.** Nouns in apposition are sometimes connected by 'of'; as 'the city of Amsterdam', 'this affair of the mutiny', 'a monster of a man', 'the crime of murder'.

'The city of London' is strictly partitive, inasmuch as the city is a part of London; but 'the town of Berlin' is an ex-

ample of apposition, 'the town, Berlin'. It is not allowable to apply this form indiscriminately : 'the river *of* Jordan' is an error.

'This affair *of* the mutiny' is the same as 'this affair, *namely*, the mutiny'. We may perhaps consider the present case as a further application of the meaning of reference. 'A brute *of* a dog' is colloquial English, and may be interpreted as a case of apposition, or predication, 'a dog that is a brute'.

'The winter *of* our discontent' is a Shakespearian figure, indicating apposition.

Additional examples. 'To ask a favour *of*', 'to rid one's self *of*', 'to cure a man *of*', 'delivered *of* a child' ('woes', 'danger' —*Shak.*), are examples of the employment of the preposition in its primary sense of 'proceeding from'. 'He rejoiceth more *of* that sheep than *of* the ninety and nine which went not astray'; 'I will not drink *of* the fruit of the vine'; 'to die *of* hunger'.

In the expression '*of* necessity' we have the equivalent of the *adverb* 'necessarily'. It may be explained as 'something belonging to or proceeding from necessity'. Shakespeare says '*of* force', where we should say 'perforce'. So, '*of* course', '*of* consequence', '*of* a truth'.

Agency or *cause* was often expressed by '*of*' about the time of Elizabeth : 'received *of* (for 'by') Edward', 'the observed *of* all observers', 'understanded *of* the people', 'ye shall be hated *of* all men', 'seen *of* all the apostles'.

This application remains in the exceedingly common case where the action, naturally expressed by a verb, is expressed by a noun. 'The baptism *of* John' gives in the form of a noun (with adjunct) the fact that 'John baptized', and the agent or subject is connected with the action by '*of*'. In the same way, 'the war party agitated' is turned, for being conveniently spoken about, into 'the agitation *of* the war party'; and '*of*' is used as in the preceding example.

Again, the object, as well as the subject, of an action is similarly connected with the transmuted verb by '*of*'. We may say 'Cæsar conquered Gaul', and then speak of this fact as 'Cæsar's conquest *of* Gaul'; the verb being transmuted into a verbal noun, with which the object is kept connected by '*of*'. 'Columbus discovered America'—'the discovery *of* America'; 'Gutenberg invented printing'—'the invention *of* printing'; 'England lost Calais'—'the loss *of* Calais'; 'to destroy a city' —'the destruction *of* a city'.

In 'the Earl *of* Mar' we have an exact case of partition ; for although such titles are now mere names, they were not always so. Mar was a great district of country containing many constituent elements, physical and moral ; among these was its

chief, or Earl: so that 'the Earl of Mar' was a correct form on the partitive principle, no less than 'the district, the people, the wealth, the history, &c., *of* Mar'. 'The Queen *of* England', the 'Town Clerk *of* Leeds', are exactly parallel. The same principle will explain 'Doctor *of* medicine', 'Teacher *of* music', 'Dean *of* Guild', 'Master *of* the Rolls'. Every one of these supposes a collective institution, made up of many elements, or parts, and of these one is specified: Medicine is a whole, containing its science, its methods, and among the rest, its doctors.

In comparing the expressions 'a bust *of Cicero*' and 'a bust *of Cicero's*', we can farther illustrate the uses of the preposition. In the second case it has the partitive signification; the meaning is 'a bust of Cicero's collection of busts'; in the other it is an example of reference—'a bust whose subject is Cicero'.

'A play *of* Shakespeare' is also partitive; a man's productions are considered as a part of his collective personality.

'The better *of* it' is not so good as 'the better *for* it'. 'My uncle Toby's heart was a pound lighter *for* it.'

4. To.

The primary idea of *motion in the direction of* pervades all the applications of 'to'.

Considering the extent of its use, the meaning of 'to' is remarkably uniform. It is pointedly contrasted with 'from', as in the phrase 'to and fro'. 'He went *to* the house', 'leave that *to* me', 'add *to* your faith', 'duty *to* our parents', '*to* arms', 'glory *to* God', are obvious instances. Among the more remote applications are to be found such phrases as 'pleasant *to* the taste', '*to* one's hand', 'ten *to* one', '*to* the number of two hundred', '*to* all intents and purposes', '*to* his honour be it said', 'done *to* a cinder', 'ye shall pay *to* the last penny', 'they marched *to* the tune of——', '*to* a Christian, this world is a place of trial and preparation'. Even in the examples where motion 'in the direction of' is not directly stated, *proximity*, which is the natural result, is indicated; hence the meaning of *reference* indicated in the last example.

As the sign of the infinitive, 'to' has still the same signification.

It is remarked by grammarians that certain nouns, adjectives, and verbs take 'to' after them, and lists of such words are accordingly given for the guidance of the pupil; as, for example, 'accustom *to*', 'adapt *to*', 'belong *to*', 'equal', 'prefer', 'tend', &c. But it should be noticed that in nearly all these cases the intended meaning is answered by this preposition, and would not be so well answered by any other. Thus the words 'attach', 'attend', 'confirm', 'consecrate', 'listen', 'give,'

'tell', 'show', 'liken', all indicate the sense of approaching nearer to something, or pointing in some one direction, which is the main signification of 'to'. In a few cases there would appear to be something arbitrary in the choice, and in these wide departures from the fundamental meaning we must look upon the connexion as a special idiom of the language, to be learned from usage, and not to be inferred from the general meaning of the word. Among these, we may perhaps include the following, 'blind *to*' (where '*to*' means reference), 'derogatory *to*', 'foreign *to*', 'object *to*', 'opposite *to*'.

Such examples as 'true *to*', 'unknown *to*', 'dislike *to*', 'provoke *to*', 'impute *to*', 'adapt *to*', are conformable to the primary signification.

We occasionally meet with violations of these special usages, such as 'different *to*', for 'different *from*'.

'To take *to* wife' is almost a solitary remnant of this use of 'to'; = 'as', 'for', 'in the capacity of'. 'With God *to* friend' (Spenser); 'he hath a pretty young man *to* his son' (Bunyan). 'This is nothing *to* what we expected'. The sense of 'in comparison with' is easily reached from the original meaning. 'The Greeks are strong and skilful *to* (in proportion to) their strength'.

'It is altered *to* the better', should be '*for* the better'.

Scotticisms: 'Will you buy a knife *to* (for) me'; 'I have no fault *to* (with) him'; 'I entertain no prejudice *to* (towards) him'.

5. For is much more complicated and various in its applications. Originally connected with 'fore', meaning 'in front of', it has branched off in different directions, until the original signification is frequently to all appearance lost sight of.

(1.) The chief meaning is '*direction*, end, purpose, benefit'. 'They set out *for* their home'; 'some toil *for* money, others *for* fame'; 'every one *for* himself'; 'the Sabbath was made *for* man'; '*for* this end came I into the world'; 'good *for* man'; 'oh, *for* a draught of vintage that hath been—'; '*for* Jesus' sake'.

This meaning is brought out strongly by the contrasting preposition 'against': 'he fought *for* his principles and *against* his interest'; '*for* the constitution, and *against* the king'. 'We are *for* the principles of good government *against* Walpole, and *for* Walpole *against* the opposition.'

The meaning of *reference*, seen in such expressions as 'so much *for* the first question', 'bodies depend *for* their visibility', can be traced to the meaning of end, purpose, benefit.

'The old idiom now called the gerund form of the verb, is an instance of this application : ' What went ye out *for* to see ? ' The idea of end or purpose is implied in this verbal construction, although the ' for ' is now dropped.

' *For* a holy person to be humble, *for* one whom all men esteem as a saint, to fear lest himself become a devil, is as hard as *for* a prince to submit himself to be guided by tutors.' Here we have a form grown out of the gerund construction, with a reference still to the idea of end, purpose, or direction. This is a useful equivalent of the noun clause (*that* a holy person be humble, *that* a prince submit himself, &c.).

The meaning of *cause*, as well as of *purpose*, readily connects itself with the sense ' in front of ': ' beheaded *for* treason', ' decorated *for* bravery', 'could not act *for* fear', 'eminent, famous *for*', 'frequented *for*'.

In the phrases ' six *for* a penny', 'line *for* line', 'measure *for* measure ', we have the meaning of *exchange*, or ' return for', which chimes in with the original signification. Perhaps the idea of *proportionality* in the phrase ' he is tall *for* his years ', is merely a following out of the same application. So also 'we took him *for* his brother', where the meaning shades into the idea of *comparison* implied in 'as '.

' *For* an hour ', ' *for* a little ', ' *for* once ', ' *for* ever ', represent an apparently distinct signification, although we may suppose a connexion between it and the primary meaning ' in front of '.

(2.) ' For ' means ' notwithstanding ','in spite of ', a meaning not readily connected with the foregoing. ' *For* all this, they still proceed '; ' *for* all his wealth, he was not content '; ' *for* anything to the contrary '; ' *for* all that.' We may suppose the connexion to arise from the circumstance that men often fail in their enterprises, although possessing the usual means of success, and that the word implies the presence of the means, according to its original force, ' in front of', and yet allows us to infer that the end was not gained. ' *For* all his wealth— with all his wealth *in front of him*—the natural consequences did not follow in his case '. (Compare the uses of ' with '.)

Of the list of words given as properly followed by ' for ', the greater number have their meaning suited by this preposition, while with a few it has no special appropriateness. Thus ' care *for* ', 'sail *for* ', 'work *for* ', ' design *for* ', 'good *for* ', 'prepared *for* ', 'substitute *for* ', 'thankful *for* ', 'answer *for* ', 'occasion *for* ', ' esteem *for* ', are all in accord with the principal meaning above given.

' He was accused *for* ', is a Scotticism for 'accused   '. So, ' there is much need *for* it '—' need *of* it ' is the correct phrase ;

'burst *for* (with) laughing'; 'insists *for* (on) it'; 'he called *for* (on) me'; 'died *for* (of) thirst'.

'To' and 'for' correspond to what is called the dative case of the classical languages, although they have a far wider range of meaning than could be expressed by that inflexion. Our so-called objective forms —me, thee, him, her, them—are, in their origin, datives, and this signification still to a certain extent adheres to them.

6. From; 'forth', 'forwards', 'beginning at', 'proceeding away.' '*From* door to door', '*from* Dan to Beersheba', '*from* home', '*from* earth to heaven'.

The original reference to *place* is widely departed from in the use of the preposition, but the more general idea of 'direction from' is in the main preserved.

The application to *time* is seen in '*from* morn to noon, *from* noon to dewy eve', '*from* my youth up', '*from* age to age'.

Anything that indicates a *source, origin, or commencement,* may be preceded by 'from'. 'He rose *from* the ranks, *from* obscurity', &c.; 'authority emanates *from* the sovereign'; 'won *from* the enemy'; 'snatched *from* the flames'; 'the song began *from* Jove'; 'we must probe the story *from* first to last'. Hence it is used in the sense of 'turn away', 'quit', 'leave', 'abandon'. 'He fled *from* the city of destruction'; 'shrinking *from* the picture of distress'.

Also *remoteness* and *privation*; as 'absent *from* my sight'; 'remote *from* cities'; 'far *from* the madding crowd's ignoble strife'; '*from* thee to die were torture more than death'.

It likewise follows words implying *deliverance, release,* &c.: 'released *from* his vow'.

So, *separation, abstraction, destruction,* are indicated by the same preposition, and with a like adherence to the main and primary import.

Motive or *reason* may be expressed by 'from'; 'they acted *from* no unworthy motive', '*from* gratitude', '*from* fear'.

Imitation is a sense closely connected with the original: 'Kneller is said to have painted the figure and hands of ladies *from* his housemaid. . . . He copied *from* the life only glaring and obvious peculiarities'. (Macaulay).

Errors.—'It is inferior *from* (should be *to*) what I expected'; 'different *to* that', should be *from.*

7. By. The primary meaning seems to be 'about', 'alongside of', 'proximity'. 'He sat *by* the river', '*by* the tree', 'hard *by* the oracles of God', 'inhabited

by the great '. The other meanings grow out of this by natural transitions.

Thus, *defence of, help* : ' stand *by* me '.

Agency, instrumentality, cause : ' eaten *by* wolves ', ' maintained *by* the public ', ' watched *by* angels ', ' shaken *by* the wind '. Shakespeare uses ' with ' in this sense : ' here is himself, marred, as you see, *with* traitors ' ; we should now say ' *by* traitors '. ' We hope to gain *by* you ' ; ' seize him *by* force ' ; ' *by* intelligence man raises his condition ' ; ' the power of speaking well should be aimed at *by* all ' ; ' to know *by* heart '.

Words of *measuring* take ' by ' after them from the circumstance that the things measured have to be put side by side : ' greater *by* half ' ; ' measure your desires *by* your fortunes, not your fortunes *by* your desires ' ; ' *by* the rule and the square ' ; ' it was sold *by* the ounce '.

In phrases of *distribution*, such as ' one *by* one ', ' house *by* house ', ' to do things *by* halves ', we have still the same idea. ' They came *by* hundreds ' is a somewhat loose application ; ' *in* hundreds ' is perhaps less frequent in good English.

The employment of the preposition with nouns of *time* illustrates the general signification : ' *by* this time they are far away', that is ' *alongside of*, or *at* this time ' ; ' *by* the commencement of spring ' ; ' *by* sunrise '.

This is the preposition of *adjuration*, a purpose still conformable to the primary meaning : ' *by* all that we hold dear ' is ' standing *by*, and under the love or fear or influence of '.

8. With. The radical notion involved in ' with ' appears to be ' towards ', ' joining or uniting '. In old English we find ' with—ward ', like ' to—ward ' (' *to* us *ward* ', &c.).

The meaning of *opposition* or *contest* comes readily from the main root, seeing that combatants must come into close contact. ' With ', in old English, was much used in this sense ; in compounds it has always this meaning : ' *with*stand '. The meaning of ' in spite of ' may be explained in the same way as the adversative use of ' for '. ' *With* all his learning, he had but little prudence '.

Company or companionship is a very natural application : ' he travelled *with* me for some days ' ; ' there is no living *with* such neighbours ' ; ' he came *with* the first and remained *with* the last ' ; ' his servant was *with* him ' ; ' he kindled *with* rage '. ' I will buy *with* you, sell *with* you, talk *with* you, walk

with you, and so following ; but I will not eat *with* you, drink *with* you, nor pray *with* you ' : ' *with* Ate by his side '. *Possession* is readily implied in union : '*with* the hope of ' is the same as 'having the hope of ' ; so ' *with* a view to ', ' *with* power to '; ' *with* regard to '.

From union or companionship comes *cause, instrumentality, means :* ' fed *with* the same food, hurt *with* the same weapons ' ; ' paved *with* gold ', ' enriched *with* knowledge ', ' elated *with* joy ', ' filled *with* wine ', ' planted *with* firs ', ' wearied *with* much study ', ' *with* meditating that he must die once '. (Shakespeare.)

It has been seen that the agent, or prime mover, in an effect, more usually takes ' by ' after it ; but the *instrument* that the agent employs is expressed by ' with ' ; ' the field was dug *by* the labourer *with* his spade '. ' By ' is the preposition that follows the passive voice to express *personal* agency : ' tried *by* his peers '.

' With ' is also used for *immediately after*, the connexion of ideas being apparent : ' *with* this, he pointed to his face '.

Errors.—' They quarrelled *among* each other ', should be ' *with* each other ' ; ' agreeably *with* (to) their instructions ' ; ' he is not yet reconciled *with* (to) me ' ; ' prevailed *with* (upon) ' ; ' good-bye *with* (to) you ', or ' good-bye '.

' From ', ' by ', and ' with ', are prepositions corresponding to the ablative case in Latin. In Greek, which has no ablative, the genitive and dative are taken instead, or the corresponding prepositions are used.

The employing of these detached words is more conducive to variety and precision than the case inflexions. Nevertheless it is proper to signalize the relations that the old languages have thought fit to express by cases, as being in all probability those of most frequent occurrence and of greatest importance. We shall now enumerate the entire body of prepositions under different heads, according to their meanings.

Classes of Prepositions.

9. I. Place. Under place, we have (1.) *Rest in* (the where), as ' in ', ' on ', ' at ', ' near ', ' by '. (2.) *Motion with direction* (the whence and the whither), ' to ', ' into ', ' unto ', ' towards ' (up, down), ' from '. (3.) *Place and direction*, ' on ', ' over ', ' under ', ' through ', ' behind ', ' between ', ' among ', ' upon ', ' near ', ' off ', ' across ', ' beyond ', ' abaft ', ' above '.

10. 1. Rest in.

In is the chief preposition of rest in, or the where; it is closely connected with ' on '.

The primary force of the word is maintained throughout the many applications of it. The idea of ' being contained ' is seen even when place is not the subject under consideration. ' *In* summer ', ' *in* a deep slumber ', ' immersed *in* worldly affairs ', ' employed *in* carrying ', ' *in* the power of the enemy ', ' *in* joy and *in* sorrow ', ' versed *in* languages ', ' persevere *in* his design '; ' involved *in* ruin '.

The phrases ' *in* fact ', ' *in* truth ', ' *in* that ', ' *in*asmuch as ', ' *in* the event of ', ' *in* vain ', ' *in* all ', indicate no essential departure from the primary import. ' *In* the name of ', used in invocation or adjurat on, may be supposed to mean ' resting upon or clothed with the name or authority of '.

The old writers often used ' in ' for ' into '; ' cast yourself *in* wonder '. The familiar phrases ' fall *in* love ', ' call *in* question ', ' dash *in* pieces ', &c., remain as examples of the usage.

Scot. ' He gave me a book *in* (as) a present '.

On. For the most part, ' on ' falls under the third class (place and direction); but it is often an equivalent of ' in ', as signifying merely rest. ' *On* a rock, . . . the poet stood '; ' the book is *on* the table '.

At. The same as ' near ' or ' close by ': ' *at* the house ' may mean simply ' near or by the house '.

Although thus coinciding in its primary meaning with ' by ', it differs from ' by ' in not being extended to signify *causation* or *agency*, except in a very limited way : ' *at* the instigation (recommendation, &c.,) of '; ' we suffered much *at* their hands '.

Besides closeness, ' at ' may imply *in the direction of* ; as ' to fire *at* a mark '; ' to glance *at* a question '; ' to laugh *at* ', ' wonder *at* ', ' bark *at* ', ' work *at* ', ' get *at* ', ' come *at* '.

Applied to *time*, it signifies a point or moment of time : ' *at* present ', ' *at* the stroke of nine ', ' *at* noon ', ' *at* midnight '.

There is a distinction between ' at ' and ' in, ' as signifying place ; we say ' *at* the market cross ', ' *at* the fountain ', but ' *in* the town ', ' *in* France ', ' *in* America '; the one being a limited object, which we may stand close by, but the other a more extended surface, which we are contained in. In some cases both are applicable : ' *at*, or *in* school or church '; but we must say ' *at* home '.

The phrases involving ' at ' are in keeping with the general signification, although some of them constitute peculiar idioms :

'at peace', 'at war', 'at play', 'at the price of', 'at a loss', 'at fault', 'at hand', 'at issue', 'at variance', 'at liberty', 'at an end', 'at best', 'at all', 'at large', 'at full speed'.

Scot. 'Angry *at* (with) him'; 'hatred *at* (to or against)'; 'ask, inquire *at* (of) a person'.

Near (nigh) also means proximity: '*near* me', '*near* the door', '*near* the city'.

This idea is obvious in its metaphorical applications; thus we have '*near* the heart', 'a translation *near* the original', '*near* the time'. It contrasts with 'at' in not signifying direction at a distance, and with 'in' in not expressing the fact of being contained in.

By. See § 7.

II. 2. Motion with direction.

To (§ 4) is the chief preposition for this meaning.

The important compound **into** is very uniform and explicit in its application.

'Go *into* the house', 'look *into* a book', 'led *into* error', 'instilled *into* his mind', 'forced *into* compliance', 'ages crowded *into* years', 'broken up *into* companies', 'burst *into* fragments', '*into* difficulties', 'infuse more spirit *into* the composition', 'let *into* the secret', 'spring *into* blossom'.

Scot. 'He is soon put *into* (in) a passion'; 'sit *into* (near) the fire'.

Unto. Now seldom used, for it signifies almost the same as either 'to' or 'into'.

Toward, towards, in the direction of: 'advance *towards* the castle', 'look *towards* the east'.

The metaphorical applications are all obvious : 'contribute *towards* the expense', '*towards* the end of the speech', '*towards* evening,' &c.

From has been already explained (§ 6).

12. 3. Place and direction.

On. The simple preposition of rest, repose, or support, the foundation or prop being indicated by the noun following : '*on* the ground', '*on* the table', '*on* the sea', '*on* the coast', 'leaning *on* his staff'.

' London is situated *on* the Thames ', shows a slight departure from the strict meaning, as if by a figure of speech.

Sometimes a falling or other *motion* is implied : ' The rain falls *on* the earth ' ; ' I sift the snow *on* the mountains below ' ; ' we rushed *on* deck '.

The other uses consist more or less in following out these primary significations. ' Depend *on* me ' is metaphorical rest or *support*. ' Now fades the glimmering landscape *on* the sight ', is highly figurative but still in keeping. ' He plays *on* the violin ', ' he dined *on* fish ', are farther extensions of signification. The constructions ' to gaze *on* ', ' to dote *on* ', ' comment *on* ', ' prevail *on* ', ' insist *on* ', ' resolve *on* ', ' reflect *on* ', ' trespass *on* ', are well recognised idioms.

In signifying *time*, we have such forms as ' *on* Monday ', ' *on* that night ', ' *on* the occasion ' ; these explain themselves. A somewhat different sense is observable when we say ' *on* the melting of the ice the ships depart '. Here the relation is between two actions ; first the ice melts, then the ships depart. The one follows the other closely. ' On ' is much the same as ' (immediately) after '.

Cause may sometimes be implied in the use of ' on ' : ' *on* this account ' ; ' *on* the failure of his plans, he threw up the project ' is both ' *when* and *because* his plans failed '.

Reference can also find expression by ' on ', as we have seen under ' of ' (§ 3). ' A work *on* politics, *on* finance, *on* music, &c. ' ; ' to speak *on* the terms of peace '. In Elizabethan English, ' on ' was often used where we must now use ' of ', especially to express reference : ' to be jealous *on* one ' ; ' fond *on* praise ' ; ' he shall hear *on*'t ' ; ' what shall become *on* me ? '

And in other cases as well : ' at root *on*'s heart ' ; ' the lord *on*'t (*of* it, the island) ' ; ' i ' the middle *on*'s face ' ; ' we are such stuff as dreams are made *on* '.

Opposition is given by ' on ' in such combinations as—' declare, make war *on* ', &c.

Many phrases involve this preposition : ' on fire ', ' on the wing ', ' on the alert ', ' on a sudden ', ' on view ', ' on a great scale ', ' on the part of ', ' on my honour ' ' his blood be on us '.

' Rely *in* ' is an error for ' rely *on* ' ; ' founded *in* truth ', for ' *on* truth '. *Scot.* ' He was married *on* (to) such a person ' ; ' I have waited long *on* (for) an answer ' ; ' I saw him *on* or *upon* (in) the street '.

' On ' is opposed by **off**, another form of ' of '.

By ellipsis, ' off ' is more in use as an adverb than as a preposition : ' *off* the ground ', ' *off* my shoulders ', ' *off* work '.

The *adverbial* meaning is the same, and is seen in composition with verbs, as 'get off', 'break off', 'be off', 'draw off', 'drive off', 'keep off', 'pay off', 'drink off'. 'Set *off*' (on a journey), should be 'set *out*'. The phrases 'well off', 'badly off', are somewhat peculiar ; there is probably an ellipsis of some subject, as if we were to say 'he is well off that business'.

Up, down, are opposed meanings.

'*Up* stairs', '*down* stairs'; '*up* hill, *down* hill'; '*up* the stream', '*down* the stream'; '*down* the vale of years'.

Adverbial form : 'the price of stock is *up*'; 'his spirits were *up*;' 'the county is *up* (in arms)'. 'Look *up*', 'fill *up*', 'lead *up*', 'hush *up*'. 'Come *down*', 'sit *down*', 'bring *down*', 'pull *down*', 'take *down*', 'run *down*', 'write *down*', 'put *down*'.

Upon is a modification or variety of the simple preposition 'on', which can be used for it in nearly every case.

'*Upon* a hill', '*upon* the right', '*upon* condition', '*upon* security', '*upon* a footing', '*upon* the parish' (for subsistence or support), '*upon* principle', '*upon* record', '*upon* trial', '*upon* a time', '*upon* occasion', '*upon* this,' 'go *upon* the ice', 'enter *upon* an undertaking'. 'Kings break faith *upon* commodity' (Shakespeare) = '*when* and *because* they can gain by doing so'.

In *adverbial* combinations ; 'dwell *upon*', 'descant *upon*', 'gaze *upon*', 'prey *upon*', 'resolve *upon*'.

Scot. 'There is a meeting *upon* (on) Thursday'; 'he plays *upon* (on) the flute'.

Above, below, beneath, adhere with considerable regularity to their well-known sense—higher or lower in place.

The metaphorical applications of 'above' to signify *superiority, dignity, elevation*, are seen in such examples as 'above his rank', 'above his means', '*above* comprehension', '*above* board', '*above* mean actions', '*above* the brightness of the sun'.

The transition is easy to the meaning, *more than*, 'in excess of'; as '*above* all', '*above* the price of rubies', 'the serpent is cursed *above* all cattle'.

Adverbially the sense is adhered to; as in referring to a former place in a book.

'Below', and 'beneath', are applied metaphorically to the

opposite states of *inferiority* and *degradation* : ' *below* the mark ', ' *beneath* the yoke ', *beneath* contempt '. *Adv.* ' He shrunk *beneath* '. *Scot.* ' Who lives *above* (over) you ? ' ' *Below* (under) water, ground, his clothes '.

Over means above in position : ' a naked sword hung *over* his head ', ' a large hole *over* the mantel-piece '.

' Over ' is extended from place to many other applications, preserving the main idea : ' power *over* ', ' to watch *over* ', predominate *over* ', ' muse *over* ', ' fear came *over* me '. ' *Over* the season,' is ' through the season ' : ' *overnight* ' would be literally ' through the night ', but means also ' after the commencement of the night '.

In composition the meaning is still preserved : ' *overshoot* ', ' *overhang* ', ' *overcome* '. In some compounds the idea implied is ' excess ' : ' *overdo* ', ' *overcharge* ', ' *overestimate* '. The transition is an obvious one.

The idea of ' covering ' distinguishes this preposition from the allied word ' above ', and has given to it a far greater stretch of applications. The number of derivatives obtained from it is very great.

Scot. ' They looked *over* (out at) the window '.

Under, the opposite of ' over ' : ' *under* the tree ', ' *under* hatches ', ' *under* water ', ' *under* heaven '.

' Under ' is often applied metaphorically. It is extended to *subjection, dependence,* and *protection* ; as ' *under* the sovereign ', ' *under* God '.

To the sustaining of anything as a *burden, covering,* or *envelope* : ' *under* obligation ', ' *under* orders ', *under* trial ,' ' *under* apprehension ', ' *under* reproaches ', ' *under* necessity ', ' *under* consideration ', ' *under* the guise, or pretence, or character, or name of ', ' *under* sail ', ' *under* arms '.

To *less in quantity* ; as ' *under* age ', ' *under* the mark '.

' *Under* the seal of ', is a more remote extension, and may be interpreted as ' under the authority or guarantee signified by the putting of a seal '.

The adverbial sense is in harmony with the other : ' bring *under* ', ' put *under* ', ' come *under* ', ' go *under* ', ' bend *under* '.

Through. The simple preposition for the idea of *passage* : ' *through* the gate ', ' *through* the wood ',

'*through* many hands', '*through* the ranks', *through* the clouds ', '*through* the valley and shadow of death '.

The first step in advance of the primitive sense is to signify *over the whole extent of a thing*, from end to end, or from one side to another ; as '*through* all ranks', '*through* all nations' ; the application depending on the fact that passage implies successive contact, and a survey of what is gone over.

Owing to the facility for gaining our wishes implied in a free passage, an open door, or a medium of conveyance, the word farther takes on the meaning of *instrumentality, cause, means :* '*through* industry', '*through* influence', '*through* the minister', '*through* the swiftness of his horse'. A difference may be noted between this kind of instrumentality and that expressed by '*with* '; a difference arising out of the primitive sense of the words.

Time : '*through* the ages', '*through* the winter', '*through* the session '.

Throughout is a strengthened form.

Scot. ' He walked *through* (across) the room '; 'he will learn *through* (in) time ' ; ' he walks *through* (in) his sleep'.

Along is ' by the long or length of ' : ' *along* the shore ', '*along* the road ', '*along*side '.

No metaphorical extensions of any importance are to be noted.

Adv. 'Come *along*', 'wander *along*', 'drive *along*', 'glide *along* '.

Across, ' on the *cross* ' : ' *across* the river ', ' *across* the street ', '*across* the Atlantic ', '*across* his shoulders '.

Adv. ' Lay *across* ', ' swim *across* '.

Before, in the front of, with or without proximity : '*before* the door ', ' *before* Sebastopol ', ' *before* the face of ', ' *before* the magistrate ', '*before* the wind '.

By a natural transition it applies to *precedence, preference,* or *superiority :* ' *before* his betters ', ' *before* his regiment ', ' he was placed *before* the knights'.

The application to priority of *time* is one of the chief uses of the word : ' *before* day ', ' *before* long ', ' *before* the age '.

In the *adverbial* applications both place and time are denoted, more especially time : ' looking *before* and *after* '.

After, opposed to ' before ' in the signification of precedence in rank, and in expressing time.

The full application to *place* is seen in the adverbial and adjective uses of the word : ' lagging *after* ', ' the *after*-part of the building '.

By an obvious figure it is used with words signifying *pursuit* and *inquiry*, and also *desire* : ' follow *after* ', ' search *after*', ' hunger and thirst *after* ', ' longing *after* immortality '.

By a farther extension, also quite accountable, we find it signifying *imitation* or following a lead : ' *after* Titiens ', ' *after* the original, the model ', ' to name *after* '.

Behind, as opposed to ' before ', means ' in the rear of ', ' at the back of ' : ' *behind* the scenes ', ' *behind* a cloud ', ' *behind* the back '.

Hence such applications as *inferiority, being left out, a remainder in arrear, at a distance, out of sight, disregarded.*

The *adverbial* compounds with verbs are of a like tenor : ' stay *behind* ', ' fall *behind* ', ' walk *behind* ', ' look *behind* '.

Between. When two objects are separated, the intervening space, or anything in a middle position, is expressed by this word in its primary sense : ' *between* decks ', ' *between* times '.

Hence it is applied to express all that goes on in such a situation : ' passing *between* '; ' intercourse or communication *between* ;' ' coincidence, similarity, contrast, or difference *between* ' (the result of the comparison that may take place when two things are near each other) ; so ' friendship, relationship, understanding *between* ', ' contest and rivalry *between* ', ' to adjudicate *between* '; also community or partnership ; as ' possessing property *between* them '.

' Between ' expresses ' in the midst of two '; but the etymology is often disregarded in its application. ' Such differences *between* these *three* great poets ' (Grote) ; ' the days when *my mother* and *I* and *Peggotty* were all in all to one another, and there was no one to come *between us*, rose up before me' (Dickens).

'Among(st)' and **'amid(st)'** imply a greater

number of things surrounding; '*among* the trees', '*among* friends', '*amidst* his flock'.

'They parted my raiment *among* them'. *Scot.* 'I stuck *among* (in) the mud'.

> 'To meditate *amongst* decay, and stand
> A ruin *amidst* ruins.'

Strictly, 'to divide *between*' implies two; 'to divide *among*', more than two.

Beyond. The primary meaning is *outside of* in place, 'on the far side of': '*beyond* sea', '*beyond* bounds', '*beyond* hearing'.

'Beyond' is extended metaphorically to signify *superiority* or *excess* in a great many other properties; thus, '*beyond* the number or amount', '*beyond* his power or his means', '*beyond* him', '*beyond* description', '*beyond* dispute', '*beyond* measure', '*beyond* the grave'. 'To go *beyond*' is to deceive, or circumvent.

Abaft. A sea term exclusively: 'no smoking *abaft* this funnel'.

Round, Around: '*round* the house', 'run *round* the common', '*around* the fire'.

'Round' adheres literally to its well-known primary signification, except in the one phrase 'to get *round* a person', for 'to wheedle or prevail with', 'to *circumvent*'.

About has the primary meaning of 'around', but is much more vaguely applied. It passes off into signifying a certain indefinite nearness or proximity, the being contained in a place somewhere or other; as '*about* the house', '*about* the town', '*about* the country', '*about* the person'.

This is also the force of the word as applied to *time*: '*about* midnight' means not exactly midnight, but some time not far off.

So with *number*: '*about* a hundred'. From expressing nearness it becomes also a preposition of *reference*; as '*about* my father's business', '*about* who was greatest', '*about* the origin of evil'.

As an *adverb*, its force is seen in 'go *about*'.

Against, 'towards', 'opposite to', 'in opposition to': '*against* the wall', 'over *against* the tower', '*against* the enemy', '*against* the current'.

The contrariety to 'for' has been already exemplified (§ 5).
'*Against* winter', '*against* my return', &c., shew the application to *time* (future).

Without, 'on the outside of', 'beyond the bounds of': '*without* the camp', '*without* the range of the rifle'.

Hence the sense of 'being deprived of', 'not having': '*without* help', '*without* courage', '*without* doubt'.

These prepositions of place and motion include nearly all the simple and primitive prepositions of the language. It will be seen from the foregoing explanations that by means of metaphorical extensions, we employ relationships of place to express most other relationships denoted by prepositions.

The relationships of place may be made more explicit and emphatic by a variety of compound *phrases*, which have the exact force of prepositions; as 'in the midst of', 'in the heart, centre, interior of'; 'close by', 'hard by', 'in close proximity to', 'in the neighbourhood or vicinity of'; 'right through', 'straight at'; 'in anticipation of'.

13. II. Time. 'Since', 'till', 'until', 'during', 'pending', 'after', 'ere'.

'Since'. The time after an event: '*since* the peace'.
'Till', 'until'. Preceding and up to an event: '*till* the end of the century'.
'During', 'pending'. The continuance of the event.

Many prepositions of place may be applied to time, by governing a noun of time; as 'in', 'on', 'at', 'before', 'between', 'by', 'within', 'about', 'above', 'near'.

'*In* a year'; '*on* this'; '*at* midsummer'; '*before* noon'; *between* this and the end of the week'; '*by* Christmas next'; *within* the month'; '*about* an hour'; '*above* a generation'; '*near* six o'clock'.

The expression of time may be rendered more specific and emphatic by a variety of phrases: 'at the moment of', 'on the eve of', &c.

14. III. Agency. The agent, instrument, or means of an action is indicated by the Prepositions 'by', 'through', 'with'; and by the *phrases*, 'by means of', 'by virtue of', 'through the instrumentality of', 'by help of', 'by force of', &c.

The simple prepositions have been already explained. The phrases derive their signification of agency from the noun: '*by means of* a powerful connexion'; '*by virtue of* his position as judge'; '*through the instrumentality of* a skilful agent'; '*by help of* favourable circumstances'; '*by force of* earnest solicitation'.

15. IV. End, purpose, motive, or reason: 'for', 'from'. *Phrases:* 'out of', 'on account of', 'by way of', 'for the sake of', 'for the ends of', 'in consideration of', 'on the score of', 'from a regard to', 'with a view to', 'with an eye to'.

As all the actions of human beings are for some end, the statement of the end is often required. The leading preposition is 'for'; 'he works *for* his bread'. When the *feeling* to be gratified is pointed out, 'from' is employed: 'he works *from* hunger'; 'he reads *from* curiosity (*for* information)'. '*Out of* kindness'; '*on account of* mere ambition'; '*by way of* strengthening his case'; '*for the sake of* peace'; '*for the ends of* justice'; '*in consideration of* his former good conduct'; '*on the score of* ill health'; '*from a regard to* character'; '*with a view to* a good education'. The meaning of the noun suggests the suitable application of the prepositional phrases. We should say, '*in consideration of* his youth, he was slightly punished', but '*on account of* the serious character of the offence'; *consideration* implying a *favourable* sentiment.

16. V. Reference: 'on', 'of', 'about', 'touching', 'concerning'; 'with reference to', 'as for', 'as to', 'as regards', 'on the subject of', 'on the matter of', 'on the point of', 'in respect of'.

'*On* the beautiful'; 'I sing *of* war'; 'he came to speak to me *about* his journey'; '*touching* the law'; '*concerning* his interests'; '*with reference to* your application'; '*as for* that'; '*as to* him'; '*as regards* the progress of the suit'; '*on the subject of* explosive mixtures'; '*on the matter of* the sale'; '*in respect of* your wishes'.

Allied to reference is Supposition for which there are several prepositional phrases, although the meaning is more usually expressed by conjunctions : ' in the event of ', ' on the supposition of ', ' in case of '.

' *In the event of* his not arriving ' ; ' *on the supposition of* there being an abundant supply ' ; ' *in case of* failure '.

17. VI. Separation and Exclusion: ' without', ' save', ' except ', ' besides ', ' but ', ' setting aside ', ' putting on one side ', ' (apart) from ', ' (far) from '.

' *Without* arms ' ; ' *save* one ' ; ' *except* England ' ; ' *besides* his own ' ; ' *setting aside* the question of compensation ' ; ' *putting (leaving) on one side* the fear of consequences ' ; ' none *but* him ' ; ' *apart* from his companions ' ; ' *far from* home '.

18. VII. Inclination and Conformity : ' for ', ' (according) to ', ' in accordance with ', ' (agreeably) to ', ' in pursuance of '.

' *For (the ends of)* justice ' ; ' *according to* use and wont ' ; ' *in accordance with* the views of both parties ' ; ' *agreeably to* your instructions ' ; ' *in pursuance of* the arrangements already entered on '.

19. VIII. Aversion, Opposition : ' against ', ' with ', ' athwart ' ; ' in spite of ', ' in defiance of '.

' A decree *against* law ' ; ' to contend *with* one ' ; ' *athwart* the wishes of friends ' ; ' *in spite of* fate ' ; ' *in defiance of* his professions '.

20. IX. Substitution : ' for ', ' instead of ', ' in room of ', ' in place of ', ' on the part of ' ' (as a substitute) for '.

' An eye *for* an eye ' ; ' *instead of* his brother ' ; (by way of evasion) 'fair words *instead of* deeds ' ; ' *in room of* the deceased ' ; ' *in place of* one of the officials ' ; ' *as a substitute for* a bridge '. *Scot.* ' *In place of* (instead of) pitying him, they laughed at him '.

21. X. Possession, Material : ' of ', ' (belonging) to ', ' (the property) of ', ' (made) of '.

22. It has been seen that some words are both prepositions and adverbs. A preposition is known by its governing a noun, or a phrase corresponding to a noun. Thus an infinitive phrase is frequently governed by a preposition : ' *on* coming home ' ; ' *on* breaking the seal ' ; ' *after* considering the case ' ; ' *without* straining hard ' ; ' the reason *of* his answering so soon '.

THE CONJUNCTION.

Definition.

I. Conjunctions join Sentences together:
'day ends *and* night begins '; 'they were equal in power, *but* they were not equally esteemed '.

This is the primary use of the words called Conjunctions. When two sentences are joined by a word expressing the relation of the one to the other, the word of relation—and, but, if, or— is a conjunction. But the remark is also made, that besides joining complete sentences, clauses, or affirmations, the conjunction may join parts of sentences, and even single words :— 'Abraham saw my day afar off *and* was glad ;' 'Napoleon *and* Wellington were great generals'. These, however, are obviously contractions, and, when restored to the full form, give distinct dictums : 'Napoleon was a great general, *and* Wellington was a great general '. 'He is *neither* a fool, *nor* a rogue ' ; '*neither* he is a fool, *nor* he is a rogue '.

The following examples are not so obviously contractions :— 'two *and* two is four '; 'if they stand between you *and* me '. Again, 'put it under lock *and* key ', seems impossible to resolve into separate sentences : the reason is that it is the last stage of several abbreviations. Very familiar objects that in the first instance would need to be expressed at some length, are in the end given by the fewest possible words that will make a meaning. A lock is a complicated machine ; it consists of two separable and yet related members ; the one is called the lock, and the other the key ; the two together are called shortly 'lock and key '. So 'man and wife', 'parent and child ', 'master and servant', 'north and south', are abbreviated correlatives united by 'and'. When we say of two persons 'they are husband *and* wife ', we cannot resolve the conjunction immediately into two separate affirmations, yet remotely the 'and ' connects distinct statements or sentences, such as these :—' human beings are of two classes ; the one class are males, who become husbands, and the other class are females who become wives'. We come to abridge these sentences by leaving out all the words, but the two essential—husband, wife—and couple these by ' *and* '. But for this we should have to say — ' one of these persons is a husband, *and* the other is (his) wife '.

Some words are Conjunctions and never anything else : such are—'and ', 'or ', 'nor ', 'if', 'because ', 'lest'. Other words

are, now at least, principally Prepositions, and become conjunctions by being prefixed to a clause ; those are—'before', 'after', 'since', 'ere', 'until', 'for'. The old English construction was to supply the demonstrative 'that' for the preposition to govern :—' *After that* I was turned I repented ', ' *after that* I was instructed, &c.*' The dropping of the demonstrative leaves the preposition in direct contact with the clause, and it is then said to be a conjunction.

Certain adverbs are included among the conjunctions. These are words that are purely relative, or stand in need of a second clause to give a meaning. ' He is industrious, *therefore* he is happy.' The word ' therefore ' would not suffice of itself to qualify ' he is happy ' ; there must be a previous clause to give the meaning, or the reason why he is happy. By this circumstance, ' therefore ' serves the office of a conjunction. It is a relative adverb, conjunctive adverb, or adverbial conjunction. Of the same class are—' likewise ', ' also ', ' still ', ' yet ', ' nevertheless ', ' notwithstanding ', ' however ', ' consequently ', ' hence ', ' accordingly '.

Classes of Conjunctions.

2. There are two leading divisions of Conjunctions —Co-ordinating and Subordinating.

Co-ordinating Conjunctions join co-ordinate clauses ; that is, independent affirmations.

Subordinating conjunctions unite subordinate or dependent clauses to the principal clause of a sentence.

3. I. The Co-ordinating Conjunctions are classed *according to the relation existing between the united clauses.* They may indicate that the second is a clause of *Addition or Cumulation* (' and '), of *Opposition or Contrast* (' but '), or of *Effect or Consequence* (' therefore ').

4. (1.) **Cumulative Conjunctions** are such as *unite one clause with a second whose meaning adds to what precedes :* ' AND ', ' also ', ' likewise ', ' as well as ', ' not only—but', ' partly—partly ', ' first—then—secondly,' &c., ' further ', ' moreover ', ' now ', ' well '.

And couples or unites two affirmations, and does no more.

This is the chief of the class ; it is a strict conjunction ; the rest are adverbs having the same general effect, but with additional circumstances or shades of meaning.

Both—and puts special emphasis on the combination.

Also marks some similarity in the second statement.

Very often, however, there is little implied in it beyond what would be signified by ' and '.

Likewise is nearly the same as ' also '.

It was considered that there was point in the remark made on the son of a famous Scotch judge, who had succeeded to his father's office, but not to his ability ; ' he was a judge *also*, but not *likewise*'. ' Likewise ' often connects one sentence with a preceding, having nearly the force of ' and '.

As well as gives an especial emphasis to the union ; in most cases more particularly to the first member.

' He *as well as* you ' is more forcible than ' he and you '. ' No less than ' has a similar effect. Both expressions are strictly *subordinating* connectives.

Not only—but indicates strongly the fact that the first mentioned circumstance does not stand by itself, and thus emphasises the second.

Instead of saying ' England *and* all the rest of Europe ', we may say, when we mean to put stress on the circumstance of England's not standing alone, ' *not only* England, *but* all the rest of Europe '.

Partly—partly.   Half—half.   Now—now.

' He spoke *partly* from conviction, *partly* from prudence.' ' He consented, *half* from cupidity, *half* from fear.' ' He dwelt *now* among the Britons, *now* among the Mercians.' These and similar forms also couple or add two predications, introducing at the same time a circumstance that seems suitable to the special case.

First, then, secondly, &c.   The numer

adverbs indicate cumulation ; the additional circumstances being *definite order* and a *means of reference.*

Further, Moreover, mean that the case is not yet exhausted, there is more to be said upon it.

Now is transferred from present time to indicate present circumstances. It introduces the middle link in an argument, and it offers explanation.

The effect of ' now ' commencing a sentence is to follow up a statement by something that completes it, so as to enable an inference to be drawn. Thus if a condition be premised from which something follows, the compliance with the condition would be expressed by ' now ', and the conclusion by ' therefore'. ' He was promised a holiday if he executed his task ; *now* he has done the task, therefore he is entitled to the holiday '. (The minor premise of the syllogism is correctly introduced by ' now '.)

' Not this man, but Barabbas ; *now* Barabbas was a robber.' Here ' now' adds an explanatory circumstance.

Well implies that hitherto all is satisfactory and indisputable, and that the way is clear for proceeding another step.

It is in the consecutive sentences of a Paragraph that these adverbial connectives come most frequently into play, and when carefully employed, they add much to the clearness of the connexion.

The omitting of a conjunction has the force of cumulation ; the mere fact of stating one thing after another, with no word expressing opposition, or conditionality, or other relationship, leaves it to be understood that they are to the same general effect, just as if we were to employ ' and ' to unite them. This omission may also suggest inference : ' The wind passeth over it ; it is gone '.

5. (2.) **Adversative Conjunctions** *place the second Sentence or Clause in some kind of opposition to what precedes.* This Class is subdivided into three species.

(a.) Exclusive : ' not—but ', ' else ', ' otherwise ', ' or'.

Not—but excludes or puts aside one fact to bring another into prominence.

'A struggle, *not* for empire, *but* for existence.'   'He did *not* speak, *but* he fought.'   'We must think *not* whom we are following, *but* what we are doing.'

Else, otherwise, 'on any other supposition'.

These adverb conjunctions have a definite and important signification *;* 'it is so, *had it not been so*, something would have happened'. 'He came to town yesterday, *otherwise* I should not have met him'; that is, 'if he had not come to town yesterday'.

Or similarly implies the exclusion of the first circumstance.

'I must seem to be angry, *or* (= *otherwise*, if I do not seem to be angry), she too may begin to despise my authority.'

(*b.*) *Alternative*: 'either—or', 'neither—nor', 'whether—or'. 'Whereas' and 'while' may be added.

The general meaning of each of these couples is well known, but there are some special meanings worth noting.

Or sometimes expresses a mere *alternative name*, or *synonyme*, the thing being the same : 'Christ, *or* (that is) the Messiah'.

In judicial proceedings this is expressed by *alias*. We are hence, sometimes, at a loss to know whether an alternative is merely verbal, or is real.

We have just seen the use of 'or' for 'otherwise' : 'you must study hard, *or* you cannot succeed'.

Nor is sometimes a contraction for 'and not'.

'He foresaw the consequences, *nor* were they long delayed' (*and* they were *not*).

These alternative conjunctions are not always confined to *two* things.

'He regarded her as *either* an impostor, *or* a madwoman, *or* a compound of both.' '*Neither* wind, *nor* rain, *nor* aught else, can cool our affection.'

> 'For I have *neither* wit, *nor* words, *nor* worth,
> Action, *nor* utterance, *nor* the power of speech,
> To stir men's blood.'

Whereas and **while** may often be regarded as co-ordinating no less than as subordinating alternatives.

'The subtle interpretation of laws can put very few in remembrance of their duty, *whereas* (= '*while*', 'on the other hand') the plain meaning of the laws is open to every man'. 'Whereas' is strictly a compound relative adverb, meaning 'in circumstances wherein, or with reference to which'.

(c.) Arrestive, represented by 'but': 'but then', 'still', 'yet', 'only', 'nevertheless', 'however'. *Phrases:* for all that', 'at the same time'.

But is the conjunction of exception and surprise.

The characteristic meaning of 'but' is seen when something has been said that suggests, according to the usual course of things, a certain other fact, or conclusion, which, however, does not follow in this case.

'He was honest, *but* he was not esteemed.' An honest man usually gains the esteem of his fellows, and when we hear the attribute of honesty affirmed, we are naturally disposed to go on and assume the accompaniment of respect; this is prevented by the use of 'but', and hence the designation 'arrestive'. 'The meeting dispersed', the conclusion is that everybody went away; to check this inference, which may be too hasty and sweeping, we add, '*but* the leaders remained'. 'He is rich, *but* not happy'; 'he tries hard, *but* he does not prosper'.

Loose employment of 'but'.—This forcible word should not be used where no exception is taken, or no arrest put upon a natural inference. 'No man taketh it from me, *but* I lay it down of myself'; 'but' is here unnecessary.

It is also a common mistake to use 'but' *in the sense of 'now'*, as signifying the completing of a case in order to draw an inference. 'Men are mortal; *but* (for 'now') we are men; therefore we are mortal.'

The *mere stating of a contrast* does not justify 'but'; 'when pride cometh, then cometh shame; *but* with the lowly is wisdom'. The last assertion is in accordance with the first (the denial of the opposite is another mode of affirming the same fact), and therefore there is no sufficient case for 'but'. 'While' is a suitable word in this connexion; so is the phrase 'on the other hand'.

In the following sentence the propriety of 'but' depends on the facts of the case: 'the Commons passed the bill, *but* the

Lords threw it out'.   If it were usual for the Lords to agree with the Commons, their opposition would be a surprise, and would be expressed by ' but '.   Where there is no surprise, a cumulative conjunction is to be preferred.   'Parliament passed the measure, *but* the King refused his consent ', would, under the custom of the English constitution, be a proper construction.

'But' is the conjunction of epigram.

But then.   A more emphatic form of ' but '; equal to ' but *in that case*, or *on that supposition* '.

Still suggests a pause to hear what is to be said by way of exception or opposition to the previous statements.

'Still' is an equivalent of ' but ', and even more emphatic : ' everything went against him ; *still* he persisted '.   As it is a greater break in the flow of the composition than ' but ', it is a preferable word for commencing a period, or the second member of a period divided by a semicolon.

Yet.   The peculiar force of ' yet ' is brought out by its connexion with 'though': 'though deep, *yet* clear '.

When 'though' is not expressed, it is understood, and the meaning of ' yet ' is almost the same.   The intention is as it were formally to concede a point that would seem to carry a certain consequence with it, and at the same time to forbid that consequence.

Nevertheless.   In conveying the same general meaning as the foregoing, this long word makes a considerable break or pause.

It is therefore suitable for introducing a longer declaration, as in commencing a period, or an extended member of a period.

However.   A word of like purport to the foregoing.   It has the peculiarity of being often placed in the middle of its sentence or clause.

'That course, *however*, he was not inclined to take.'   The advantage of such an arrangement is, that the conjunction does not stand between the two connected statements, and so permits the reference to be emphatically close.

Only.   Placed at the beginning of an assertion ' only ' has the effect of ' but '.

'Do as you please; *only* let your intention be apparent'; that is, your doing so is still to permit this *one thing*, namely, that you make your intention apparent.

For all that, in spite of all that, notwithstanding all that, are phrases that produce the arrestive effect, and are suitable to be made use of when a more than ordinary emphasis is demanded. This emphasis they give partly from the force of the words, partly from their occupying the attention by their length.

At the same time. Another phrase belonging to the arrestive class, without much speciality in its application.

6. (3.) Illative Conjunctions *express effect, or consequence :* ' therefore ', ' wherefore ', ' hence ', ' whence ', ' consequently ', ' accordingly ', ' thus ', 'so', ' so that ', ' then ', ' so then '.

Therefore is the typical word of the class.

It is also the most frequently made use of. The rest do little more than afford synonymes to vary the composition. **Wherefore** is equal to ' and therefore '; **hence,** the same as ' from this '; **whence** like ' wherefore ', dispenses with ' and ' when we should say ' and hence '.

Consequently is the equivalent of ' as a consequence '.

Accordingly may mean ' consequence ' or ' effect ', like the preceding.

It is also suited by its etymology to a rather different meaning sometimes important to be signified,— ' in harmony with '. ' The arrangements are that the cavalry and artillery shall move in advance; *accordingly*, you (the cavalry) are to leave your position ', &c.

Thus and **so,** like ' accordingly ', are words originally implying comparison or similarity of manner, and extended to signify inference or consequence.

' Thus ' is employed after stating a principle *to introduce an example or case in point ;* as much as to say ' we shall give an instance of what is intended '. It also expresses a comparison in the strict sense ; as in the passage from the *Pleasures of Hope :* ' At summer's eve, when heaven's ethereal bow ', &c.— *thus* (adv. of manner or comparison) with delight we linger '.

The existence of these two distinct uses renders the word less apt as an illative conjunction, although still admissible.

'So', whose primary function is to make a comparison, can also express a consequence. 'There was nothing to be seen, *so* we went our way'.

So that is more specific than 'so'; the addition of 'that' excludes the meaning of comparison; hence this combination is one of our most precise forms of signifying inference. Its most characteristic import is, 'to such a degree that'.

Then. From having as an adverb the force of 'after that', or 'in the next place', 'then' has been included among illative conjunctions; the fact of one thing *following* another being given as showing causation or inference.

The same explanation applies to the adoption of 'consequently', 'it follows that', as words signifying cause and effect.

'Then' is more commonly used in a compound phrase, 'so then', 'and then', but it may, standing alone, have the full force of 'therefore', in drawing an inference, or stating an effect, or a consequence. '*So then* the cause was gained', signifies 'by those means it came about as an effect that', &c.

To vary the expression of this important relationship, as well as occasionally *to make it more emphatic* and *precise*, we use phrases of greater length; as 'the effect, consequence, result, upshot was'; 'the inference is'; 'it follows'; 'it may be concluded, inferred', &c.

7. II. The Subordinating Conjunctions are divided *according to the various relations or modes of dependence;* as Reason (because), Condition (if), End (that), Precaution (provided that), Time (when).

8. (1.) Conjunctions of Reason and Cause: 'because', 'for', 'since', 'as', 'whereas', 'inasmuch as', 'seeing (considering, &c.) that'.

When we invert an illative connexion, stating the consequence as the main clause, the other is then assigned as the reason : 'he is in earnest, *therefore* he will succeed' *(illative);* 'he will succeed, *because* he is in earnest' *(reason).* The clause '*because* he is in earnest', is a subordinate or dependent clause ; in other words, the fact is given not for its own sake, but as bearing out something else. The conjunctions introducing these clauses are, therefore, called subordinating.

Because, by its derivation, is the word for assigning a cause.

Moral causes, or motives acting on the mind, are expressed by this conjunction : ' he reads *because* he has thought himself hungry ; he writes *because* he has read himself full '. Physical causation is stated in this example : ' the crops failed, *because* the season was dry '.

For is used in assigning causation, in giving what is called *the logical* reason or proof, and in *explaining* or *accounting for* a thing.

' The brook will be very high, *for* a great deal of rain fell in the night' (physical cause) ; ' a great deal of rain must have fallen, *for* the brook is high.' (the logical reason or proof). ' He pressed on, *for* his ambition was still unsatisfied ' (explanation). The word is especially appropriate in this last sense. A characteristic application is seen in such a sentence as ' do as you are told, *for* much depends on it ' ; here there is a blank or ellipsis, and when that is filled up, the conjunction shows itself in the sense of giving the reason or proof : ' do as you are told ; if you fail, the consequences will be serious, *for* (or the proof of which is) much depends on it '.

Since literally means something that is past, and hence settled and fixed, so that whatever consequences depend on it must now arise.

' *Since* you desire it, I will look into the matter.' It declares a certain circumstance to have occurred, and gives that as a reason for the main affirmation.

As derives its use as a subordinating conjunction of reason from the original idea of declaring *similarity* or *comparison.*

' *As* we are at leisure, let us see what is to be seen ' ; the ' as' here assigns a reason for our seeing, &c., and it does so by indicating a sort of similarity or harmony between the positions of our being at leisure and our seeing all we can : 'it is in accordance with our situation to see', &c. 'Let us act out, conform to, or resemble our position', &c. Although 'as' is thus included among the subordinating conjunctions of reason, there is more frequent danger of ambiguity with it than with the others of the class.

Whereas introduces the preamble in every Act of Parliament, giving the reason or motive of the enactment, or the evil to be remedied by the provisions that follow.

Hence it is strictly a conjunction of reason, but its employment in this sense is mostly confined to legal compositions.

The meaning belonging to the word in ordinary style is different. ' I offered to take the lot entire, *whereas* every one else wished it divided.' Here it plainly indicates a contrast between two things. See § 5 (2) (*b*).

Inasmuch as, forasmuch as. These are compound equivalents of ' since ', ' as ', and ' whereas ' (in the sense of a preamble). ' *Forasmuch as* many have taken in hand to set forth in order,' &c.

Seeing that, considering that, have a special appropriateness *when the reason grows out of circumstances reflected on by the mind.*

' *Seeing that* you cannot get what you ask, take what you can get.' ' *Considering that* the world is so intricate, we are not to be surprised that science has progressed slowly.' The only peculiarity of these phrases as conjunctions of reason is derived from the meaning of the words ' seeing ', ' considering '.

9. (2.) Conjunctions of Supposition, Condition, or Qualification : ' if ', ' supposing (that) ', ' if not ', ' unless ', ' except ', ' without ', ' otherwise ', ' whether ', ' as if ', ' though ', ' notwithstanding ', ' albeit '.

If. When a thing is stated not absolutely or unconditionally, but under a certain condition, supposition, or qualification, ' if ' is the principal word for expressing the condition.

' I will, *if* I can ; ' ' *if* I could, I would '. This is the main use of the conjunction, to which it adheres with considerable uniformity.

A peculiar and somewhat ambiguous employment of the word is seen in the fable, where the ant says to the grasshopper, ' *If* you sung in summer, dance in winter ', where ' if ' has the force of a reason, the condition being a realised fact, ' *since,* or *as* you sung '. These are cases where the conjunction is always followed by the indicative mood.

Supposing that, on the supposition, presumption, allegation, hypothesis that, are phrases that vary the mode of introducing conditional statements; they carry their own meaning with them. **In case (that)** is a very convenient and often-wanted phrase for anticipating contingencies or eventualities. The prepositional phrase 'in the event of' is of the same tenor.

Provided that. See § 10, end.

If not is a conjunction of *negative* condition.

'Aristotle, the most sagacious, *if not* the most comprehensive, mind of antiquity', conveys an insinuation of doubt, although the context and the manner will often show that the speaker either believes or disbelieves the statement.

Unless and **except** are also conjunctions of *negative* condition.

'*Unless* (= if not) I hear to the contrary, I will be there.' '*Except* (= unless, if not) ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish.'

Without was formerly used to signify 'if not': '*without* you go, I will not'. The connexion of this sense with the usual force of the preposition is apparent.

Whether—or, whether, indicate a double case of conditionality.

'*Whether* he like it *or* not, he will have to go': that is 'whichever of the two suppositions be the fact, he will have to go'; 'if he like it, he will have to go'; 'if (though) he do not like it, he will have to go'.

In the expression 'I know not *whether* he will come,' the word 'if' sometimes takes the place of 'whether', as if conditionality were still suggested. The transition from stating conditionality to implying mere doubt is an obvious one; the meanings are still distinct.

As if is a compound conjunction carrying out the sense of both words.

'He started *as if* he saw a spirit', is elliptical for '*as* he would have done *if* he,' &c.

Though, although, express *concession*, which is condition, with the circumstance that parties are willing to allow something that they might perhaps refuse.

' *Though* all men deny thee, yet will I not '; 'grant the supposition that all men, &c.'

When something is given as true with a certain limitation, we may use this word : ' they advanced steadily, *though* slowly '.

The use of ' yet ' to preface the principal clause increases the emphasis of that clause, but does not affect the meaning of ' though ' in connexion with the subordinate clause.

The omission of ' though ' in the above example would make the clauses co-ordinate, united by the co-ordinating arrestive conjunction ' yet '.

We have a variety of phrases for the present meaning : **provided that, allowing that, granting that**, &c. **Supposing that** also frequently implies that a concession is made.

Notwithstanding falls under the same head as the foregoing.

It is a verbal phrase converted into a preposition in the first instance, and then into a conjunction. It obviously means ' I am prepared to do a certain thing, granting what appear to be strong considerations or forces on the other side '.

' For all that, in spite of all that ', are expressive synonymes for the co-ordinating meaning. ' Anyhow ', ' at all events ', are other phrases of allied signification.

Albeit is an expressive combination, and ought not to be considered as obsolete, or old-fashioned.

10. (3.) Conjunctions of End, or Purpose :
' that ', ' in order that ', ' so—as ', ' as—as ', ' lest '.

That is the demonstrative pronoun, converted into our chief conjunction of end.

' We sow, *that* we may reap '; 'men toil, *that* they may attain to leisure '. The transference of the demonstrative to this peculiar use may be explained by supposing that after a fact is stated, the hearer is ready to ask ' what then ?' ' what next ?' ' what of it ?' ' for what end ?' whereupon the demonstrative supplies the information desired, ' *that*, (namely) we may reap '. Without assuming the natural desire to know *why* a thing is, or why an assertion is made, we cannot well account either for this conjunction or for the still greater blank of connecting words shown in the gerund construction : ' we sow *to reap* '; ' they stoop *to rise* ; ' *born* but *to die* '; in all which the action expected to follow is simply named in its most naked form, the hearer being looked upon as asking why ? or wherefore ?

In order that is somewhat more explicit than the simple 'that'; still it fails to express the fact of *end* by a direct meaning : the words ' in order' mean only ' this first, that next ' ; the hearer must himself suppose that the one leads to, or points to, the other. The same phrase is interposed in the gerund construction ' we read *in order to* be informed '.

So—as. ' He *so* acted *as* to gain the confidence of others.'

This is a kind of relative construction, the ' so' being demonstrative, the ' as ' relative. ' He acts in that manner, by which manner he gains.' The end is still a matter of inference more than of direct information. The effect of the construction is to indicate not merely end, but a certain express suitability in the means employed to compass the end.

Lest is the end of avoidance : ' in order not to '. ' They set a strong guard, *lest* any one should escape.'

In the use of this conjunction we should notice that if the principal verb contains the meaning of avoidance, ' that ' is preferable to ' lest'; ' I *feared that* (not *lest*) I should be deceived '.

Precaution is indicated by the phrases, **provided that, with the understanding that, with this proviso,** &c.

Precaution may be viewed either as condition or as end. It is a collateral object to be kept in view, and fulfilled along with the main purpose. In doing what is chiefly aimed at, we are to secure certain other things : ' *provided that* all is safe, you may depart '. In Acts of Parliament the phrase used is ' provided *always* that '.

II. (4.) **Conjunctions of Time** are partly relative Adverbs, partly Prepositions before clauses : ' when ', ' while ', ' as '; ' until ', ' ere ', ' before ', ' after '.

' I will come *when* I am at leisure '; ' I will praise thee *while* (so long as) I live '; ' *as* I looked, some one came near ' ; ' they remained *until* night set in '; ' it will be long *ere* you have such a chance ' ; ' the truth will come out *before* we are done '; ' *after* the vote was taken, the assembly broke up '.

Immediate consequence is signified by various compound connectives : ' no sooner—than ', ' just when', ' hardly—before', ' the moment that ', ' as soon as ', &c.

The INTERJECTION is not properly a part of speech, as it does not enter into the construction of sentences. It is a sudden exclamation prompted by some strong feeling or emotion. There are various utterances suited to the different emotions of the mind : as, *joy,* 'huzza !' 'hurra !' *grief,* 'O !' 'ah !' 'alas !' *wonder,* 'hah !' *approbation,* 'bravo !' *aversion,* 'pugh !' 'tush !' For calling *attention,* 'lo !' 'hush !' &c.

EXCLAMATION, one of the figures of rhetoric, employs words of ordinary language in the manner of interjections : 'what !' 'for shame !' 'ah me !' 'how strange !' 'hark !'

INFLEXION.

The second part of Etymology, called **Inflexion**, treats of the changes made on words to express various relations and meanings.

Thus the Noun and the Pronoun are changed in three ways, namely, to express difference of Gender, Number, and Case. These changes constitute *Declension*.

The Adjective and the Adverb are inflected for Degree. This process is named *Comparison*.

The Verb is changed to signify Person, Number, Time, &c. This is called *Conjugation*.

The uninflected Parts of Speech are the Preposition, the Conjunction, and the Interjection.

INFLEXION OF NOUNS.

GENDER.

I. Natural Gender: Gender follows Sex. In Modern English, the natural difference of sex determines the gender.

Beings possessing animal life are divided into the two classes, or Sexes, male and female; as man, woman; bull, cow. Plants and things destitute of life have no sex.

To this natural distinction corresponds the division of names, according to Gender.

Names for individuals of the *male* sex are of the Masculine gender; as 'king', 'man', 'bull'.

Names for the *female* sex are of the Feminine gender; as 'queen', 'woman', 'cow'.

Strictly speaking, these two are the only genders in Modern English.

Names for things *without sex* are said to be of the **Neuter** Gender, that is, are simply left as of no gender; as 'gold', 'mountain', 'bread', 'oak'.

'Neuter' is Latin for '*neither*'; that is, here, neither masculine nor feminine.

Many words are applied to *both sexes* alike; as 'parent', 'child', 'cousin'. These are said to be of the **Common** Gender.

The names applied to the greater number of the inferior animals are of this sort, it being only in the more important and best known species that we are at the pains to note the sex. Thus, 'trout', 'ant', 'lizard', are common to both sexes. If we wish, on occasion, to mark the sex, we use a special designation, as the prefix 'he' or 'she', or the adjectives 'male', 'female'. 'Man', and 'mankind', are often used comprehensively for both sexes. We also use other designations, such as 'actor', 'author', 'painter', 'poet', for both sexes, although they are properly masculine, and have feminine derivatives ('actress', &c.) The effect of this is to give very different meanings to the two phrases: 'the greatest of living *actors*', and 'the greatest of living *actresses*', applied to a woman. By the first she is designated the first actor of either sex, by the second the first of her own sex.

2. Purely Grammatical Gender. In Old English, the gender is often determined, not by the meaning, but by *the form*.

In modern English, gender follows sex (with a few exceptions); that is, masculine words and forms are confined to the male sex, feminine words and forms to the female sex. But in old English, as well as in many other languages, as Latin, Greek, &c., a poetical or figurative process of personifying things without life was in extensive operation, by which the distinction of gender was extended to nouns generally; and the adjective was regularly inflected in three forms, for masculine, feminine, and neuter.

Masculine endings were -*a*, -*end*, -*ere*, -*ing* (patronymic), -*dom*, -*had*, -*scipe*, &c.; as 'mona' (moon), 'weald*end*' (*wield*-*ing* one, ruler), 'fisc*ere*' (fisher), 'Wodn*ing*' (Woden's son), 'wis*dom*', 'cild*had*' (childhood), 'freond*scipe*' (friendship).

Feminine endings were the abstract -*nis* (from adj.), -*u*, -*ung* or -*ing* (from verbs), &c.; as 'blith*nis*' (joy), 'caru' (care), 'leorn*ung*' or 'leorn*ing*' (learning).

Neuter endings were -*ern*, -*lac*, -*en* (diminutive), &c.; as 'bern' (for 'bere-æern', barley-house, barn), 'cnaw*lac*' (knowledge), 'mæg*den*, mæd*en*' (maiden).

In many cases the distinctive termination was dropt in course of time, the original gender still remaining : ' stræt ' (for 'strætu', fem., street), &c.

In the 13th century there was great confusion of the genders ; and in the 14th century, the modern system was pretty well established.

3. There are three ways of distinguishing the Gender of Nouns.

I. By employing different words : as ' king, queen '; ' husband, wife '; ' boy, girl '; ' cock, hen '.

This is a question of the meaning of words, and not of grammar. It is not a method of inflexion, but a substitute for inflexion. The number of such words is not great. The following are the chief :—

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Bachelor	Maid	Father	Mother	Nephew	Niece
Boar	Sow	Friar	Sister	Papa	Mamma
Boy	Girl	Gander	Goose	Ram or } Wether }	Ewe
Bridegroom	Bride	Gentleman	Lady		
Brother	Sister	Hart	Roe	Ruff	Reeve
Buck	Doe	Horse or } Stallion }	Mare	Sir or } Sire }	Madam Dame or dam
Bull	Cow				
Bullock or } Steer }	Heifer	Husband	Wife		
		King	Queen	Sloven	Slut
Cock	Hen	Lad	Lass	Son	Daughter
Colt or Foal	Filly	Lord	Lady	Stag	Hind
Dog or Hound	Bitch	Mallard	Wild duck	Tailor	Seamstress
Drake	Duck	Man	Woman	Tutor	Governess
Drone	Bee	Milter	Spawner	Uncle	Aunt
Earl	Countess	Monk	Nun	Wizard	Witch

Some of these names, though distinct in appearance, are very closely connected in their original forms. Thus, ' gander ' (old *gan-d-ra,* = *ganr-a* = *gans-a* ; *d* being euphonic, *r* being substituted for an older *s,* and *a* the masc. termination) and 'goose' (old *gôs,* for *gons, gans*) are radically the same word. ' Nephew ' and ' niece ' come through French from Lat. *nepos* and *neptis.* According to Dr. Morris, ' lord ', old English *hláford,* is for *hláf-weard* (loaf-keeper), and the corresponding feminine is *hláf-weardige,* contracted to old *hláfdige,* which in course of time became ' lady '. ' Colt ', ' foal ', and ' filly ', have been traced to a radical connexion. ' King ' and ' queen ' may possibly be, at bottom, the masc. and fem. forms of the same word. ' Lass ' may be for ' lad-ess '. ' Man ', in old English, was of both genders ; ' woman ' is O. E. *wif-man* (wife-man).

' Bridegroom ' is a corruption of old *brydguma,* (bride's man) ; *guma* (man) being cognate with Lat. *homo,*—as *gans*

(goose) is cognate with Lat. *(h)anser.* 'Countess' is the
derivative feminine of 'count', the French name for 'earl'.
'Girl' was of either gender as late as the 14th century, signifying
'a little child'.

'Drake' is explained, by reference to cognate forms, as a con-
traction of *end-rake* (duck-king): cp. Germ. *enterich* (drake):
it is wholly distinct from 'duck'.

The giving of different words to denote gender is an
exceptional usage, and is accounted for in most cases
by *the great difference of function of the two sexes.*

Thus men and women perform offices so different, and
sustain characters so distinct through the various relationships
of life, that we are not surprised at their being designated by
different words. A 'daughter' is literally 'the milker', or
'milkmaid', because that was the office that the daughters of
the house fulfilled in early pastoral times. So the 'horse' and
'mare', the 'bull or ox' and 'cow', the 'ram' and 'ewe',
&c., have broadly marked distinctions in their uses and employ-
ments, which probably suggested the difference of appellation
in each case.

In a few instances there is *a noun of common gender
as well as separate designations* of the sexes.

Thus—

Child	Son or Daughter	Sovereign	King or Queen
Deer	Hart or Roe	Parent	Father or Mother
Fowl	Cock or Hen	Pig	Boar or Sow
Horse	Stallion or Mare	Sheep	Ram or Ewe.

These are also various compounds :—

Foster-father	Foster-mother	Milk-man	Milk-maid
Gaffer *(grand-père)*	Gammer *(grand'-mère)*	Moor-cock	Moor-hen
Gentle-man	Gentle-woman	Pea-cock	Pea-hen
Grand-father	Grand-mother	Step-father	Step-mother
Land-lord	Land-lady	Step-son	Step-daughter
Mer-man	Mer-maid	Turkey-cock	Turkey-hen
		French-man	French-woman

4. II. By prefixing a word indicating the sex :

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Male-servant	*Female*-servant	*Boar*-pig	*Sow*-pig
Man-servant	*Maid*-servant	*Buck*-rabbit	*Doe*-rabbit
Man-kind	*Woman*-kind	*Bull*-calf	*Cow*-calf
He-bear	*She*-bear	*Cock*-sparrow	*Hen*-sparrow
He-goat	*She*-goat	*Dog*-fox	*Bitch*-fox

'Woman' (*wif*-man, wife-man) is originally an instance under this head. '*Man*-child', and '*knave*-girl' for 'boy', '*tom*-cat' (old '*carl*-catt'), '*ewe*-lamb', '*queen*-bee', &c., are similar examples.

5. III. By the use of distinctive suffixes, or terminations : *-ess, -trix, -ine, -a,* (Romance suffixes), *-en, -ster,* for adding to the masculine to make the feminine ; and *-er, rake,* for adding to the feminine to make the masculine.

This is the only mode of real inflexion.

-ess (Fr. *esse*, M. Lat. *issa*) is the ordinary feminine suffix in Modern English.

Up till about the middle of the 14th century, *-ess* was attached only to a few words, these words being, like itself, of Norman-French origin. In the second half of the 14th century, it became established as the usual feminine ending for nouns of whatever origin.

Sometimes *-ess* is added to the masculine, without further change :

MASC.	FEM.	MASC.	FEM.	MASC.	FEM.
Baron	Baron*ess*	Heir	Heir*ess*	Patron	Patron*ess*
Count	Count*ess*	Host	Host*ess*	Peer	Peer*ess*
Dauphin	Dauphin*ess*	Jew	Jew*ess*	Poet	Poet*ess*
Deacon	Deacon*ess*	Lion	Lion*ess*	Priest	Priest*ess*
Giant	Giant*ess*	Mayor	Mayor*ess*	Prophet	Prophet*ess*

'Tutor-*ess*', 'viscount-*ess*', and many others, might be added. 'God, god-d-*ess*'; 'prince, princ-*ess*'; 'ogre, ogr*ess*'.

Sometimes the special masculine ending is omitted before *-ess* is added :

MASC.	FEM.	MASC.	FEM.
Abbot	Abb*ess*	Caterer	Cater*ess*
Negro	Negr*ess*	Murderer	Murder*ess*
Governor	Govern*ess*	Sorcerer	Sorcer*ess*

'Abbot' is O. E. *abbod*, Lat. *abbātem* ; 'abbess' is shortened from 'abbudisse' (Lat. *abbātissam*), the oldest example of this ending in English. 'Governor, -*ess*', 'murderer, -*ess*', &c., practically add the masc. or the fem. termination to the verb root ; the addition of *-ess* to the masculine would make a troublesome pronunciation. 'Sorcerer' is a corruption of Fr. *sorcier*, Lat. *sortiārium* (from *sortes*, lots, oracles) ; 'sorceress' seems to be formed on much the same principle as the preceding.

Sometimes the masculine ending is, or appears to be, modified before *ess* is added :

MASC.	FEM.	MASC.	FEM.
Actor	Actress	Founder	Foundress
Benefactor	Benefactress	Instructor	Instructress
Conductor	Conductress	Marquis	Marchioness
Doctor	Doctress	Master	Mistress
Duke	Duchess	Protector	Protectress
Emperor	Empress	Tiger	Tigress
Enchanter	Enchantress	Traitor	Traitress

'Duchess' is old Fr. *duc-esse, duch-esse.* 'Emperor' is Fr. *empereur,* shortened from Lat. *imperātōrem* ; 'empress' was previously 'emperesse' (13th century), 'emperice' (12th century), a shortening of Fr. *imperatrice,* Lat. *imperātrīcem.* 'Marchioness' is Lat. *marchionissa,* from masc. form *marchio(nem).* 'Mistress' corresponds to 'mister' rather than to 'master' ; in O. E. the forms were *maister, maist(e)resse.*

-trix, the feminine form of Lat. *-tor,* is found in a few nouns that come direct from the Latin :

MASC.	FEM.	MASC.	FEM.
Adjutor	Adjutrix	Executor	Executrix
Administrator	Administratrix	Heritor	Heritrix
Director	Directrix	Testator	Testatrix

'Proprietor' has both 'proprietrix' and 'proprietress'. 'Directress' also occurs. 'Empress' has just been explained. 'Nurse', older *nurice, norise,* F. *nourrice,* Lat. *nutrīcem.*

-ine, -ina, is especially frequent in proper names of women.

MASC.	FEM.	MASC.	FEM.
Hero	Heroine	Landgrave	Landgravine
Czar	Czarina	Margrave	Margravine

Caroline, Josephine, Pauline ; Alex(andr)ina, &c.

-a occurs in some Romance words :

MASC.	FEM.	MASC.	FEM.
Don	Donna	Infante	Infanta.
Sultan	Sultana	Signore	Signora.

'Beau' (old 'bel'), 'belle' come direct from French.

-en and **-ster** are the native Teutonic endings. Both are now obsolete.

-en remains only in 'vixen'.

The form 'vixen' is a dialectic variation of 'fyxen', the regular O. E. fem. of 'fox'. The vowel o changes to y under the influence of the coming e (in -en) : compare 'god', 'gyden' (goddess) ; 'wulf', 'wylfen' (she-wolf) ; Germ. 'fuchs, fuchsin', 'gott, göttin', 'wolf, wölfin'. The same change is also seen in 'man, men', 'cock, chicken' (O. E. cycen), 'gold, O. E. gylden (golden)'.

The real mark of the feminine, e, had been dropt even in the earliest English ; the en, although taken practically as a mark of gender, is in fact a mark of possession. Dr. Morris illustrates this by quoting Sanskrit Indra (name of a God), Indrani (Indra's wife), and Lithuanian gandras (stork), fem. gandrenë ; where -n and -en denote possession, -i and -ë the fem. gender.

-en was common in old English, but had almost died out in the 14th century.

Compare -in in Scotch 'carl-in' ('female carl', old woman).

Ster remains in 'spinster'.

'Spinster' is a feminine word, as meaning 'an unmarried female' ; it originally meant 'a female spinner'. In old English the male agent was denoted by -ere, the female by -estre : 'bæc-ere (baker), bæc-estre', 'sang-ere (singer), sang-estre', 'webbere (weaver), webbestre'. A good many feminines in -ster were in use as late as the 16th century ; but when -ess became the prevailing feminine termination in the 14th century, words in ster came gradually and largely to be used as masculine, or as expressing the agent in general. Hence 'songster', as masculine, forms 'song-str-ess', with double feminine ending ; and 'seam-str-ess', 'spin-str-ess', 'tap-str-ess', &c., show a like history. -Ster now indicates mostly the agent : 'throwster', 'whipster', 'punster', 'trickster', 'gamester', &c. The sense of depreciation connected with some of the words, arises from the nature of the action more than from the special ending.

-er forms 'widower' (masc.) from 'widow' (fem.).

In O. E. the forms were 'widuwa' (masc.) and 'widuwe' (fem.) ; but when the distinctive terminations were lost, 'widow' was appropriated to the feminine, and the necessity arose for a masculine form.

'Drake', and 'gander', have already been mentioned as other masculines formed from feminines, 'end' (duck), and gans (older form of 'goose').

'Bridegroom', a compound, was previously noted as formed from 'bride'.

6. Poetical gender, or Personification.— Inanimate objects are sometimes spoken of as male or female, and are then said to be *personified*. Thus, it is customary with us, as with the Greeks and Romans, to speak of the Sun as masculine, and of the Moon as feminine.

The sun (fem. in O. E. and modern German), time, summer, winter, the morn, death, anger, fear, despair, are made masculine ; the moon (masc. in O. E. and modern German), the earth, the dawn, night, Nature, the Church, Hope, Pity, are feminine. The planets are some masculine and some feminine, according to the sex of the deities that they owe their names to : Jupiter, Saturn, Mercury, &c. ; Venus, Pallas, Vesta, &c. This is now considered a poetic licence.

The modern English practice of confining distinction of gender to difference of sex, renders those occasional deviations very impressive, by actually suggesting to the mind the idea of personal existence and attributes ; whereas in Old English, Greek, Latin, French, &c., the assigning of gender to things inanimate produces no effect on the mind. A German speaks of his spoon as *he*, his fork as *she*, and his knife as *it*.

The motives for assigning the masculine gender to some things, and the feminine gender to others, are supposed to be the following :—Things remarkable for strength, superiority, majesty, sublimity, as Death, Time, Winter, War, have been looked upon as masculine. Gentleness, beauty, and grace, fertility or productiveness, belonging or imagined to belong, to things, suggest a feminine personification ; as the Earth, Spring, Hope, Virtue, Truth, Justice, Mercy, Peace. Things very much identified with their owner are occasionally spoken of as *she* ; the seaman calls his ship ' she ' ; to call a watch or a clock ' she ' is a common Scotticism.

7. The knowledge of the Gender of a Noun is necessary in order to the correct use of the Pronouns, ' he ', ' she ', ' it ', and their inflexions and derivatives.

The concord of the common gender is arranged thus. For the more distinguished beings, we may use the masculine, in its representative sense ; as in speaking of a member of the human family, we may say ' he ', although women are also included. The most correct form, although somewhat clumsy, is to say ' he or she '. (See Syntax—Concord of Pronouns.)

I. Singular and Plural.—When a Noun (or Pronoun) names a single object, it is said to be of the *Singular* Number ; as 'book', 'man'.

When more than one are named, the Noun usually undergoes a change, and is then said to be of the *Plural* Number ; as 'book*s*', 'men'.

The singular is the original form of the noun.

In old English a **dual** number existed, but only in the personal pronouns of the first and second persons.

2. The Plural is formed in English, with a few exceptions, **by adding -s (or -es) to the Singular:** 'ship, 'ship*s*'.

In Old English there was a class of masculine nouns forming the plural by the addition of **-as** to the singular ; as 'smith', plur. 'smith-*as*'. In later English this -*as* became **-es** ; as 'smith', plur. 'smith-*es*'. This came very near the -*s* or -*x* of the Norman-French, and the consequence was that the form in -*es* was extended to English nouns generally, all the other old English plural endings being dropped. The change came into operation as early as the thirteenth century. In the next century, -*es* began to cease to be pronounced as a separate syllable, and the -*e*- was dropt : 'smith*es*' became 'smith*s*'.

The bringing of the -*s* into the same syllable with preceding letters (other than '*e*') led to certain phonetic modifications.

(1.) When the Noun ends in a *surd or sharp consonant* (-*p*, -*f*, -*t*, -*th* [as in 'smi*th*', '*th*in'], -*k*), **the -s has its own proper surd or sharp sound** as in 'gas,' 'sea' : as 'crops', 'beliefs', 'cats', 'wreaths', 'books'.

This is a necessity of pronunciation ; we are unable to pronounce a surd and a sonant together ; we cannot say 'cropz', 'beliefz' 'catz', without such a pause between the letters as would constitute a new syllable. The same reason determines the next rule (2).

Exceptions in '-f'. Nouns of native origin ending in -*f* preceded by a long vowel (except '*oo*') or by

'*l*', change the -f into -v-; and -s is pro-
nounced as -z: '**loaf, loaves**' (*lóvz*), '**wife, wives**'
(*wívz*): '**half, halves**' (*hávz*), '**calf, calves**'; '**wolf,
wolves**'.

The change of '*f*' to '*v*' brings these exceptions under the
next rule (2), and requires final *-s* to be sounded as *-z*. The
'*v*' before *-s* merely signifies that the preceding vowel is
long: see below (2). In '**half**', '**calf**', and suchlike, the *-f*
is preceded in pronunciation by a long vowel, not by '*l*'.

In O. E. '*f*' was pronounced sonant or vocal, as modern '*v*',
and the spelling was by and by made to accord with the
pronunciation. In the 12th and 13th centuries this gradually
came to be done in cases where '*f*' stood between vowel
sounds; as '*líf*', dative '*lír-e*' (cp. '*alive*', for '*on líve*' = in
life'), '*dére*', plural of '*déf*' (deaf), '*heáfod*', later '*heáved*'
(head). Compare '**lively**' (O. E. '*lýflíc*'), '**love**' (O. E. '*lufe*',
'*lufu*', verb '*lufian*'), '**heaven**' (O. E. '*heófen*', '*hefen*'), &c.
In our old writers we find '**wifes**' side by side with '**wives**'.

'**Fife**', '**strife**' make '**fifes**', '**strifes**'.

'**Beef**', '**roof**', make '**reefs**', '**roofs**'; but '**beeves**' is
formed from '**beef**' (Fr. *bœuf*, '*ox*').

When a short vowel, or long '*ie*', precedes '*f*', the general
rule is preserved: '**muff**, **muffs**', '**cliff**, **cliffs**', '**mischief**,
mischiefs' (*mischiéfs*, '*ie*' short), '**belief**, **beliefs**' (*beliéfs* or
beliéfs, '*ie*' long). But '**thief**' has '**thieves**'.

A few nouns ending in '**-f**' have both plural forms.

'**Staff**': plur. '**staffs**' (military sense), '**staves**' (usual sense).
'**Dwarf**', '**scarf**', '**wharf**', '**turf**' make '**dwarfs**', '**scarfs**',
'**wharfs**', '**turfs**', and less frequently now '**dwarves**', '**scarves**',
'**wharves**', '**turves**'.

Many others now forming in *-fs* had *-ves* in older English.

Exceptions in '**-th**'.—Some nouns in *-th* change
the surd or breathed *-th* into the sonant or vocal *-th*
(= *dh*), and therefore sound final '*-s*' as '*-z*'.

Such are '**clothes**' (*klódhz*), '**mouths**' (*moudhz*), '**oaths**'
(*ódhz*), '**paths**', '**truths**', '**youths**', &c.

The O. E. forms ended in sonant *-th* (=*-dh*); as '**mouth**'
(*mudh*), '**ath**' (*ádh*), '**treowth**' (*tryeowth*), &c.

(2). When the Noun ends in certain *sonants* or
flat consonants (*-b, -v, -d, -th* [as in '*scythe*', '*the*'], *-g*), in
a *liquid* (*-m, -n, -l, -r, -ng*), or in a *vowel*, the *-s* has

the corresponding sonant or flat sound -z : as
'cabs', (= *kăbz*), 'graves' (*grăvz*), 'gods' (*gòdz*),
'booths', 'bogs', 'palms', 'pans', 'bells', 'masters',
'rings', 'grottos'.

In 'babe-s, grave-s, wave-s, drove-s, mode-s, name-s, pane-s ',
and suchlike, the *-e-* is merely a spelling device, to indicate that
the preceding vowel is long.   In such words we do not use the
plural ending *-es*.

(3). When the Noun ends in a *palatal or sibilant or
hissing sound* (-*s*, -*z*, -*sh*, -*zh* ; -*ce* [&c., = -*s*], -*ch* or -*tch* [=
tsh], -*ge*, or -*dge* [= *j* = *dzh*], *x* = [*ks*]), the earlier -es
is retained : as 'cross, crosse*s* ', 'prize, prize*s* ', 'fish,
'fishe*s* ', 'face (= *făs*), face*s* ', 'beech, match (= *bétsh,
mătsh*), beeches, matches', 'barge, bridge (= *bārdzh,
brĭdzh*), barges, bridges ', 'box (= *bŏks*), boxes '.

The sibilant of the plural ending cannot be added with dis-
tinct and separate pronunciation to a syllable ending with itself
or another sibilant.   In order to sound it clear, the organs of
speech must make a special effort ; and a vowel—'*e* ' is the
easiest—must be admitted between the sibilant sounds.   Hence
the *-e-* of *-es* is dropt, in these cases, neither in pronunciation
nor in spelling.

These three rules express a general principle of euphony, or
accommodation, applicable wherever words are inflected by the
addition of ' -s ' ; as in the possessive case of nouns, and in the
third person singular of verbs.

-es is added to some words ending in o.

Such are 'calicoes, cargoes, echoes, heroes, manifestoes,
mulattoes, negroes, potatoes, volcanoes', &c.   This is a mere
caprice of spelling, and the pronunciation is not affected.

Nouns ending in -y preceded by a conso-
nant change the -y into -ie-s to form the plural ;
as ' duty, dut*ies* '.

But nouns having a vowel before -y are
regular (See (2)) : ' boy, boy*s* ', ' valley, valley*s* '.

Formerly such words as ' duty ', ' glory ', were written ' dutie ',
' glorie ' ; and the regular plurals of these, —' dutie-s ', ' glorie-s ',
have been retained unaltered, while *the singular has undergone
a change*.   This too is a mere matter of spelling, and not a
proper inflexion, or modification of the word.

The foregoing are **the regular and modern processes** of forming the plural in English.

3. Obsolete modes of inflexion are still seen in a small number of Nouns as 'man, men'; 'ox, oxen'; 'brother, brethren'; 'cow, kine'; 'child, children'.

Change of vowel is seen in the following words:

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Man (O. E. *man*)	Men (O. E. *men*)
Foot (O. E. *fót*)	Feet (O. E. *fét*)
Goose (O. E. *gós*)	Geese (O. E. *gés*)
Tooth (O. E. *tóth*)	Teeth (O. E. *téth*)
Louse (O. E. *lús*)	Lice (O. E. *lýs*)
Mouse (O. E. *mús*)	Mice (O. E. *mýs*)
Cow (O. E. *cú*)	Ki(ne) (O.E. *cý*), Scot. *kye*.

The vowel change is not an inflexion; it is only an incidental result of the real inflexion, the ending representing which is now lost. The original plural of 'man' was 'manni'; and the modifying influence of final -*i* softened -*a*- into -*e*-; so that on the falling away of the inflexional ending, the plural appeared as 'men'. So 'fét' is for '*fóti*', 'lýs' for '*lús*-i', 'mýs' for '*mús*-i', &c.

In O. E. a few other nouns similarly modified their root vowels: as '*bóc* (book), *béc*'; '*broc*, *bréc*' ('breeches', Scot. 'breeks'), 'turf, *tyrf*'; '*burh* (burgh, borough), *byrig*'; '*furh* (furrow), *fyrh* or *fyrig*'; '*wiht* (*wight*, creature), *wuht*'.

The ending -en now remains only in 'ox-*en*' (O. E. 'ox-*an*').

In old English -*an* was a very common termination; later it was modified to -*en*. Other examples, not long obsolete or still in provincial use, are 'een' (Chaucer's and Spenser's 'eyen', 'eye-en' O. E. *eag-an*), 'esen' (eaves, O. E. *efesen*, *esen*), 'hosen' and 'shoon' (= 'shoe-en', O. E. *scon*), 'house-n', 'peat-en', 'pesen' (peas), 'pull-en' (fowls), 'toon' (toes), 'tree-n', &c.

A few nouns were later assimilated to the -*en* ending; as 'brethren', 'children', 'kine'.

'Brethren'. The plural of 'brothor' was first 'brothr-*u*' or 'brothr-*a*'; later 'brothr-*e*', 'brethr-*e*', 'brether'; then 'brothr*en*', 'brethr*en*'.

Modor (mother), *dohter* (daughter), *sweoster* (sister), were declined in the same way in O. E., and had a partly similar history.

'Children'. O. E. 'cild' (child) had for plural 'cild-*r-u*', which was modified to '*child*r-*e*' and 'child-*er*', 'child-*ren*' and 'child-*er-n*'.

Compare '*calvren*' (from O. E. *cealf*, 'calf'), '*eyren*' (from O. E. *æg*, 'egg'), and '*lambren*' (from O. E. *lamb*), all long obsolete.

'Kine'. O. E. '*cû*' (cow) formed its plural, as we have seen, 'cy', or 'ky'; later, it took on '-en', and became 'kin', 'ken', 'kine', a double plural. 'Cows' is now the regular and common usage.

4. Some Nouns have **the same form in both numbers**; as 'deer', 'sheep', 'swine', 'grouse', 'teal', 'mackerel', 'trout', 'salmon', 'heathen', 'cannon'.

This corresponds to a class of neuter nouns that had lost their (nominative) plural inflexion in the oldest English: O. E. *deor* (sing. and plur.), 'deer'; *sceap* (sing. and plur.), 'sheep'; *swin* (sing. and plur.), 'swine'; &c.

5. Foreign Words.—Many words borrowed from other languages **retain their original plurals**: 'focus, foci'; 'genus, genera'; 'beau, beaux'; 'cherub, cherubim.'

The following are a few of the most usual :—

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Formul*a*	Formul*æ*	Analys*is*	Analys*es*
Larva	Larvæ	Axis	Axes
Nebula	Nebulæ	Basis	Bases
Mag*us*	Magi	Append*ix*	Append*ices*
Radi*us*	Radii	Rad*ix*	Rad*ices*
Tumulus	Tumuli	Vort*ex*	Vort*ices*
Animalcul*um*	Animalcul*a*	Series	
Datum	Data	Species	
Efflu*vium*	Efflu*via*	Superficies	*(No*
Medium	Media	Apparatus	*change.)*
Momentum	Momenta	Sir	Messieurs
Stratum	Strata	Madame	Mesdames
Criteri*on*	Criteria	Bandit	Banditti
Phenomen*on*	Phenomena	Virtuoso	Virtuos*i*
Miasma	Miasm*ata*	Seraph	Seraph*im*

'Messieurs' is French; 'mes sieurs' being literally 'my sirs'. We have not adopted the corresponding singular 'monsieur' (*mon sieur*). So 'madam' is our form of 'madame'

(*ma dame*, 'my lady'); and 'mesdames' (*mes dames*) is the unmodified French plural. When a foreign word passes into common use, the tendency is to adopt the English plural. Thus we have 'genius-es', 'crocus-es' 'vivariums', 'memorandums', 'encomiums', 'dogmas', 'formulas', 'cherubs', 'seraphs', 'bandits'. Some foreign words have currency chiefly in the plural; as 'errata', 'arcana', 'dilettanti', 'antipodes'.

6. Some Nouns have **two plurals, with separate meanings.**

SING.	PLURAL.
Brother	Brothers (by blood); brethren (of a community).
Cloth	Cloths (kinds or pieces of cloth); clothes (garments).
Die	Dies (stamps for coining); dice (for gaming).
Genius	Geniuses (men of original power); genii (spirits).
Index	Indexes (to a book); indices (signs in Algebra).
Pea	Peas (separate seeds); pease (collective).
Penny	Pennies (separate coins); pence (collective; as 'four*pence*').
Shot	Shot (the number of balls); shots (the number of times fired).

'Pea' is a modern formation from 'pease' (O. E. *pisa*, *pese*), which was singular. The old plural *pesen* (and *peses*) dropt its distinctive ending, and thus plural and singular became the same in form: the -*s* end-sound gradually restricted the common form to the plural use, and 'pea' came to be used as singular. From 'pea', the plural 'peas' is a regular and modern formation.

'Penny' is O. E. *pening* or *penig*; pl. *penigas*, later *pennyes*, *pens*, *pence*.

The restriction of the separate forms to the different meanings is quite modern.

7. The Plurals of a few Nouns **seem to differ in meaning from the Singulars**: 'compass, compasses'; 'corn, corns'; 'iron, irons'; 'salt, salts'; 'content, contents'; 'domino, dominoes;' 'good, goods'; 'vesper, vespers'.

Some nouns seem to have *two meanings in the singular*, only one of which, and this the least common, corresponds to the plural. 'Corn', 'iron', &c., being names of materials, do not take a plural form; 'corns', 'irons', &c. are the plurals of new singulars with different meanings (See below, § 12; and p. 20), 'a corn', 'an iron', &c. 'Compass', 'content', 'good', and other abstract nouns, similarly give rise to new singulars (or might do so), and hence 'compasses', 'contents', &c. (See below, § 13; and page 22, § 13). Other words, such as

'domino', have quite distinct singular meanings, and consequently quite distinct plural meanings.

Further examples are : 'antic, antics'; 'beef, beeves' (see § 2); 'draught, draughts'; 'forfeit, forfeits'; 'grain, grains'; 'ground, grounds'; 'scale, scales'; 'spectacle, spectacles'.

Some nouns have *two meanings in the plural*, one corresponding to the singular, the other distinct from it :

SING.	PLURAL.
Custom	Customs : (1) habits ; (2) revenue duties.
Letter	Letters : (1) of alphabet ; (2) literature.
Number	Numbers : (1) in counting ; (2) in poetry.
Pain	Pains : (1) sufferings ; (2) trouble, care.
Part	Parts : (1) bits, divisions ; (2) faculties, abilities.

'Custom' is often used collectively or abstractly in the second sense of the plural form. The second meaning is, in all these cases, a rhetorical extension of the first.

8. Some Nouns are used only in the Plural.

'Aborigines', 'amends', 'annals', 'antipodes', 'assets', 'archives', 'banns', 'bellows', 'billiards', 'bowels', 'breeches', 'calends', 'credentials', 'dregs', 'entrails', 'filings', 'gallows', 'hustings', 'ides', 'lees', 'matins', 'measles', 'molasses', 'news', 'nones', 'nuptials', 'oats', 'obsequies', 'odds', 'pincers', 'pliers', 'premises', 'scissors', 'shambles', 'shears', 'snuffers', 'spectacles', 'thanks', 'tidings', 'tongs', 'trappings', 'trousers', 'tweezers', 'vespers', 'victuals', 'vitals', 'wages'.

Some of these nouns name complex objects with an obvious plurality of parts :

Especially tools, instruments, &c. ; as 'bellows', 'pincers', 'pliers', 'scissors', 'tongs', &c.

And articles of clothing ; as 'breeches', 'drawers', 'trousers'.

Others name collectively masses or aggregates of individuals, real or imagined.

Such are 'aborigines', 'archives', 'ashes', 'billiards', 'bowels', 'dregs', 'filings', 'molasses', 'moustaches', 'proceeds'; 'dumps', 'measles', 'sulks'.

9. Plural forms construed as Singular are

not uncommon : 'amends', 'barracks', 'bellows', 'gallows', 'innings' (at cricket), 'means', 'news', 'odds', 'pains', 'shambles', 'tidings', &c.

'*A* gallows' (Goldsmith); 'the gallows *itself*' (Cooper).

'Means', according to most grammarians, is to be used in the singular when the signification is singular, and in the plural when the signification is plural. We may say, accordingly, '*this* means', or '*these* means', as the case requires. The singular form 'mean' is to be found in the present century (Sir W. Hamilton, Carlyle, &c.).

'News' in old English was commonly plural: '*these* are *news* indeed' (Shak.); but now it is uniformly singular: 'ill news *runs* apace'. The singular form 'new' never existed.

'Small-*pox*', is a plural disguised by a new spelling: 'pox' is for 'pocks'. As the name of a disease, 'small-pox' is singular.

'Tidings' is plural. It is commonly used by Shakespeare as a plural noun, but in some instances he makes it singular: '*that* tidings came'; '*a* tidings' *(Antony and Cleopatra).*

Names of *sciences*, or of parts of sciences, often appear in plural form, being literal translations of the classical terms: 'acoustics', 'economics', 'mathematics', 'optics', 'physics', 'politics', 'statics', &c. Yet as naming collective   les of doctrine, they take a singular verb: '*optics is* the science of light'. Sometimes the singular form is found: 'logic' (and, in the Irish universities, 'logics'), 'metaphysic' and 'metaphysics', &c.

The singular forms 'amend', 'gallow', 'mean', 'nuptial', 'pain', 'tiding', 'thank', 'wage', occur in old English.

10. Singular forms treated as Plural :—
'alms', 'eaves', 'riches'.

'Alms'. O. E. *ælmesse, almesse, almes;* plur. *ælmessan, elmessen, almesses.* 'None was heard to ask *an alms*' (Macaulay). 'The *alms* they receive *are*——' shows the transition.

'Eaves'. O. E. *yfes, efesc, eves;* plur. *efesen (esen), eveses.*

'Riches'. O. E. *richesse* (from French); plur. 'richesses'. 'In one hour *is* so great *riches* come to naught' (*Rev.*). '*Riches profit not*' is an example of the changed use. '*Riches* in a cultured community *are* the strangest of things. . . *They are* the readiest of possibilities' (Carlyle).

'Summons' (O. Fr. *semonse*, O. E. *somons*), another apparent plural, is really singular, and is used as such; pl. 'summonses', regularly.

11. Proper Nouns sometimes apply to one person, and are therefore Singular, and sometimes to several persons, and then admit of the Plural : 'The *Browns* have gone to the country'.

12. Names of Materials have no Plural; as 'gold', 'air', 'butter'.

But when there are different *qualities*, or separate *portions*, of the material, the noun becomes a class noun, and the plural is regularly used; as 'sugars', 'wines', 'clays', 'airs', 'teas', 'soups'. 'Sands' is used because the material is made up of distinct particles, which we can therefore suppose to be numbered. (See further p. 20).

13. Abstract Nouns have no Plural: as 'wisdom', 'pride', 'baseness', 'might', 'whiteness', 'elasticity', 'opacity'.

Occasionally these nouns seem to be in the plural. The plurals, however, are then class nouns, and signify, not the abstract quality, but *particular actions* or *particular varieties of the quality;* as 'liberties', 'virtues', 'vices', 'negligencies', 'lengths', 'forces'.

Or they may really signify *something in the concrete;* as 'transparencies'. (See further § 7, above; and p. 22, § 13).

14. Nouns of multitude, although singular in form, have a plural meaning and construction: 'vermin', 'cattle', 'crowd', 'people', 'folk', 'infantry', 'tenantry', 'Englishry', 'poultry', 'fowl', 'fish'.

15. The omission of the Indefinite Article with Nouns that take that Article before them, is a sign of the Plural.

The proper declension of a noun is: (singular) '*a* house, (plural) houses'; '*a* man, men'; '*a* sheep, sheep'.

16. Plural Inflexion disused.—With a numeral, the sign of the Plural is often dispensed with: 'five *pound*', 'ten *sail*', 'two *brace* of birds', 'four *pair*', 'two *dozen*', 'a three-*foot* rule', 'twenty *year*', 'forty *head* of cattle', 'a thousand *horse*', 'two million *stand* of arms', 'thirty *change* of garments'.

This omission probably originated in connexion with the one-syllable flexionless plurals (nominative) already mentioned (§ 4); such as 'deer', 'head', 'horse', 'pound', 'sheep', 'year', &c. It has evidently been much favoured by the circumstance that the numeral indicates the fact of plurality,

and therefore renders the plural inflexion unnecessary. Indeed the means of making known plurality are superabundant, as we may see from such an instance as the following : ' Four children were at their lessons, the good creatures '. Here the plurality is expressed by *six* different marks : 1st, the numeral ; 2nd, the plural inflexion, ' children ' ; 3rd, the verb ' were ' ; 4th, ' their ' ; 5th, the plural of the word in apposition, ' creatures ' ; 6th, the omission of the article.

There are certain further cases where the plural inflexion is idiomatically dropt. ' He has no *objections* (objection) ' ; ' I was in his *favours* (favour) ' ; ' they were dressed in *blacks* (black) '. In the 16th and 17th centuries, however, an attribute common to several persons was often put in the plural. Shakespeare has— ' I will requite your *loves* ' ; ' break not your *sleeps* for that ' ; ' then bring me to their *sights* ', &c. Bacon and Shakespeare have ' blacks '. Milton has ' take our *leaves* ' (= departure).

17. Strictly speaking, the Plural form declares only that there are more than one of the thing named ; but we are able often to infer besides something as to the extent of the number.

' We are to have *friends* this evening ', means some or a few. ' He keeps *horses* ', implies the same. ' He sells *books* ', refers to the nature of his occupation. ' *Men* say ' is men in general ; all that have an opportunity of speaking on the subject. ' *Sheep* are meek animals ' ; the whole race of sheep : ' *men* are mortal ' ; all men. Thus the context may indicate sufficiently that the number spoken of is *a few, a great number*, or *the whole* of the thing spoken of.

18. The Plural of Compound Nouns is generally formed *by inflecting the principal Noun ;* as ' sons-in-law ', ' goings-out ', ' maids-of-honour ', ' maid-servant*s* ', ' man-stealers '.

Where the words are so closely allied that the meaning is incomplete till the whole is known, the ' s ' is added at the end : as ' pailful*s* ', the ' three per cents ', ' forget-me-nots '.

We may say either ' the Miss*es* Brown ', or ' the Miss Browns ', or even ' the Miss*es* Browns '. ' The Misses Brown ' has a collective effect ; ' the Miss Browns ' rather implies separate action. But in commercial life we say ' the Messrs Brown '.

A few titles composed of two nouns in apposition have both nouns inflected after the manner of the French : ' Knights Templars ', ' lords-justices ', &c.

CASE.

I. Case is an inflexion of the Noun (or of the Pronoun), **showing its relation to other words ;** as 'the master's voice ', where the addition of *-s* to ' master ' shows that 'voice' is the property of ' master '.

In many languages those inflexions are more numerous. Besides the relation expressed above, called the *possessive* or *genitive* relation, there are several others in the oldest English, as well as in Greek, Latin, &c., denominated *dative, ablative,* &c. In modern English, prepositions serve the purpose served in those languages by the various case-endings : ' *patri* ' is ' *to* a father', ' *patre* ' is ' *by* a father '. We can also substitute for the possessive inflexion in our own language the preposition ' of'; 'the voice *of* the master '.

2. There are said to be **three cases in** modern English,—**Nominative, Possessive,** and **Objective ;** but in nouns the Possessive is the only case where inflexion occurs. *Nominative*, ' man'; *possessive,* ' man's'; *objective,* ' man '.

In the oldest English, nouns had *six* (or at least *four*) cases. With the exception of the Genitive or Possessive, hardly a trace of these remains in the language as used now. The Pronouns have preserved a few more remnants of their old case-endings.

Except for the pronouns, the distinction of nominative and objective would not be kept up, as the form of the noun can never show whether it is nominative or objective. For nouns, these names have a meaning only in construction with verbs ; the one corresponding to the subject (the nominative), the other to the object of the sentence.

The *Dative* case remains, without inflexion, in some constructions : ' give *the boy* a penny ', ' send *the Captain* help ', ' woe worth *the day* ', &c. The *Instrumental* or *Ablative* case, which in nouns had the same form as the Dative, no longer shows any inflexion.

3. The Possessive is formed in the Singular by adding to the Noun the letter ' s' preceded by an apostrophe : ' John, John's '.

In the Plural no addition is made, except the apostrophe : 'fathers, fathers''. But if the Plural does not end in *s*, the general rule for the Singular is then applied : 'the children's bread'.

The reason for not adding 's' to the regular plurals is the difficulty of pronunciation : 'fathers, fathers's'.

In the oldest English, the genitive of masculine and neuter nouns was most commonly formed in *-es*: 'smith, smith*es*'; 'dæg (day), dæg*es*'; 'scip (ship,, scip*es*'. Chaucer has 'crist*es* gospel', 'bedd*es* heed (bed's) head)'; much later, the *-es* ceased to be pronounced as a separate syllable, and the 'e' dropt out in writing, its absence being signified by the apostrophe ('). Dr. Morris thinks that "(')" was at first probably used to distinguish the genitive from the plural suffix," and that "its use may have been established from a false theory of the origin of the genitive case, which was thoroughly believed in from Ben. Jonson's to Addison's time "—that *-s* was a contraction of 'his', whence such expressions as 'the *prince his* (for *prince's*) house'. This substitution of *his* for *-es* dates from the 13th century. The full form *-es* yet exists in 'Wedn-*es*-day' (Woden-*es*-dæg).

In the oldest English, the feminine and the plural genitives were formed by other endings ; but by the 13th century these had begun to be dropt and *-es* to take their place.

The omission of the vowel, and the consequent sounding of the 's' in the same syllable as the letter preceding, leads to varieties of pronunciation, such as those described for the formation of plurals ; the 's' being sometimes sounded sharp, as 'life's', and sometimes flat : 'God's', 'Jacob's'. (See *Number*.)

4. The 's' is omitted in the Singular when too many hissing sounds would come together : 'Socrates' wife', 'for conscience' sake', 'for goodness' sake', 'for Jesus' sake'.

We say 'St. James's and St. Giles's', 'Moses's', 'Douglas's', 'Burns's'. The general rule is adhered to as much as possible. When the word consists of more than two syllables, the 's' is dropt, as 'Euripides' dramas'. In poetry it is frequently omitted : Bacchus', Æneas', Epirus', Hellas'.

"In O. E., fifteenth century, if the noun ended in a sibilant or was followed by a word beginning with a sibilant, the possessive sign was dropt ; as 'a *goose* egg', 'the *river* side'." (Morris).

5. In Compound Nouns the suffix is attached to the last word; as 'heir-at-law's', 'the queen of England's'.

Even when there are two sep*rate names, the *s* is added only to the last; as, 'Robertson and Reid's office'; 'John, William, and Mary's uncle'.

In older English, down to the 16th century, the usual construction is seen in such examples as '*Sœberhtes* death east seaxna *cyninges*' (*Bed.* ii, 5, quoted by Morris),='*Sœberht's* death, the East Saxons' *king's*' = '*Sœberht,* the East Saxons' *king's* death' or 'the death *of Sœberht the king* of the East Saxons'; 'for the *Lordes* love *of heaven.*' (Piers the Plowman) = 'the *Lord of heaven's* love'; '*his brother's* death *the Duke of Clarence*' (Sir T. More); 'for *King Henry's* sake *the sixth*' (More). Byron writes 'for *the Queen's* sake, *his sister*'. The separation of the possessive from a modifying adjective clause is very common. In this case the clause would be much too long to intervene before the noun; but the best plan is to substitute for the possessive, and allow the antecedent to come down close to the relative. 'This way will direct you' *a gentleman's* house *that hath skill to take off these burdens*' (Bunyan): say 'to the house *of a gentleman that* hath skill, &c'.

6. The Possessive Inflexion is principally limited to persons, animals, and personified objects. We may say '*John's* occupation', '*the king's* crown', 'the *lion's* mane', '*the mountain's* brow'; but not '*the house's* roof' (for 'the roof *of the house*'), '*the street's* width', '*the book's* price'.

Thus it is only a select number of nouns that admit of the inflexion: for the great mass we must use the preposition 'of'. This very much diminishes the importance of the only case-inflexion that the language retains, rendering it an exception rather than the rule. The examples of its use may be classified as follows :—

1. Proper names of persons: '*Peter's* pence', '*John's* farm'. For these the possessive inflexion is preferred, although it is not exclusively employed; '*David's* psalms' (the psalms *of David*); '*Plato's* philosophy' (the philosophy *of Plato*).

2. Class designations of persons: as 'judge', 'farmer', 'soldier'. 'The *hero's* harp', 'the *lover's* lute', 'the *enemy's* camp'.

> 'And Zion's daughters pour'd their lays
> With *priest's* and *warrior's* voice between.'

3. **Animals**: 'the cat's mew', 'the eagle's flight', 'the ant's industry', 'the elephant's tusk'. The other form is equally common.

4 **Dignified objects** that we are accustomed to hear **personified**: '*the sun's* rays', '*the moon's* rising', '*the earth's* surface', '*the torrent's* rage', '*the lightning's* flash', '*the volcano's* heavings', '*the morning's* ray', a '*man-of-war's* rigging', '*fortune's* smile', '*melancholy's* child', 'the last *trumpet's* awful voice', 'and *love's* and *friendship's* finely pointed dart', 'the clamour of *the Church's* being in danger', '*time's* follower', '*nature's* voice', '*eternity's* stillness', '*perdition's* dream'.

The powers of the human mind are sometimes personified; whence we have '*reason's* voice', '*passion's* lure', 'for *conscience* sake', '*imagination's* range', '*fancy's* flight'.

The collective interests of humanity may be treated in the same way: '*history's* business', '*society's* well-being', '*the law's* delay'.

Poets naturally carry the usage farther than prose writers:—
'Seeking the bubble reputation at *the cannon's* mouth' (Shak.). 'He sat him down at *a pillar's* base' (Byron). There are **instances in ordinary speech**, where the possessive is used without personification, but they are **rare**; as 'for *appearances'* sake', 'for *acquaintance's* sake'; and even in these the other form, with the preposition, is more usual. In old English the inflexion was quite common. There are certain phrases where **a period of time** is governed in the possessive by the action or state that the time relates to: '*a day's* leave', '*a month's* holiday', 'a few *hours'* intercourse', 'the *Thirty-years'* war'.

But we are not now permitted to make indiscriminate use of this inflexion; such expressions as 'what is the *cheese's* weight?' 'who was *gunpowder's* inventor?' '*copper's* value', '*heat's* laws', would be a violation of all usage.

7. It would be correct to call the Possessive in 's' **the inflexion of personal possession, or attribute.**

Sentient beings may have their possessions, properties, or attributes expressed by being inflected in this manner: 'the *merchant's* wealth', 'the *ambassador's* credentials', 'the *tiger's* ferocity'. When **an inanimate object** so far impresses the mind that we think of it as **having sense and will**, we may bestow upon it the personal ending 's', just as we may ascribe

to it human passions and features : ' the *tempest's* fury ', ' *Time's* hoary locks ', ' *Death's* fatal arrow '.

For the meanings of the genitive in English as regularly expressed by the preposition ' of ', see *Prepositions*.

8. Further remnants of Case-Inflexion are seen in certain pronouns and adverbs.

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INFLEXION OF PRONOUNS.

I. Pronouns are inflected almost solely for Case. A Pronoun differs from a Noun in having a distinct form, called the *Objective* Case, used when it stands as the object after a verb or a Preposition ; as ' I saw *him* '; ' he saw *me*, and spoke to *me* '. Examples of the true *Dative* inflexion also remain.

There is *no inflexion for* **gender** in the pronouns. Those that express difference of sex have different words for the purpose :—' he, she, it '; ' who, which, what '. The *-t* in ' it ', ' that ', ' what ', does indeed mark neuter gender (§ 3), but only to the eye of the philologist.

The same remark applies to **number ;** the plural is not expressed by an addition to the singular, but by a distinct word in each number : ' I, we '; ' thou, you '; ' he, she, it,—they '; while the relative and interrogative pronouns are the same for both singular and plural.

2. The Personal Pronouns are thus declined :—

SINGULAR.

	Nominative.	*Possessive.*	*Dative.*	*Objective.*
1st *person*,	I	Mine, My	Me	Me.
2nd *person*,	Thou	Thine, Thy	Thee	**Thee.**

PLURAL.

1st *person*,	We	Our, Ours	Us	Us
2nd *person*,	Ye or You	Your, Yours	You	You .

In old English, down to the latter part of the 13th century, there existed a dual declension of the personal pronouns (first and second). Nom. *wit* (we two), gen. *uncer*, dat. *unc*, acc. *unc* (*uncit*, archaic and poetical). Nom. *git* (you two), gen. *incer*, dat. *inc*, acc. *inc* (*incit*, archaic and poetical).

I, in the oldest English, *ic,* has now lost the final guttural. A middle form *ich,* seen in *icham (Ich am,* I am), *ichabbe (Ich habbe,* I have), *ichille* (*Ich wille,* I will), &c., still exists in dialects in the south of England. Compare Germ. *ich,* Dan. *jeg,* Gr. and Lat. *ego.*

Ye, you. Down till the 16th century, ' ye ' (O. E. *ge*) was nominative, and ' you ' (O. E. *eow*) dative and accusative.

Mine, thine, (O. E. *min, thin* : the final *e* simply shows that the *i* is long) are the oldest forms. **My, thy,** drop the inflexional ending -*n* ; a process dating from the 12th century.

Our, your (O. E. *user, ure*; *eower*) retain the genitive ending -*r.* **Ours, yours,** are double forms, adding to ' our ', ' your ', a second genitive ending -*s* ; they "made their first appearance in the Northern dialects of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, and are due to Scandinavian influence". (Morris).

Me, thee, us, you, as datives, correspond to the O. E. datives, *me, the, us, eow.* They still appear as datives in certain constructions. ' *Me*seems ', ' *me*thinks ' = ' (it) seems, thinks (= appears) *to me*'. ' Woe worth *him* ' = ' woe worth (= be) *to him*'. ' Show *me* that.' ' *You* had better go ' was freely used in the 16th century for ' *you were* better go ' : that is, ' (it) *were* (= *would be,* subj.) better *for you* (to) go '. In ' he steps *me* to a trencher ', ' the skilful shepherd peeled *me* certain wands ', and such like, ' *me* ' seems to appropriate the narrative of the action to the speaker, and to be equivalent to ' mark *me* ', ' *I* tell you ' (Abbott).

As objectives, the same forms correspond to the O. E. accusatives *me (mec,* archaic : compare Germ. *mich), the (thee), us (usic), eow (eowic).*

3. The Demonstratives, or Pronouns of the third person, are declined as follows :—

SINGULAR.

Nominative.	Possessive.	Dative.	Objective.
He	His	Him	Him.
She	Her, Hers	Her	Her.
It	Its	It	It.

PLURAL.

They	Their, Theirs	Them	Them

He, his. ' His ' is the regular genitive of an original (supposed) form *hi.*

Him, now both dative and objective, was only dative in O. E. The O. E. accusative was *hine,* which was gradually supplanted

by the dative form *him* in the 13th and 14th centuries. *Hi-m* shows dative ending -*m*, attached to the root *hi-*.

She. The O. E. *heo* died out in the 14th century, having been slowly superseded during two centuries by 'she', a new application of the feminine definite article (O. E. *seo, sio ; scœ, sco ; sche*).

Her, hers. 'Her' (O. E. *hire, here*) preserves the genitive ending -*re*. 'Hers' is a double genitive, like 'ours', 'yours' (§ 2). The dative 'her' also preserves the dative ending of the O. E. forms *hire, here*. The objective 'her' is the dative form re-applied, an early substitution for the O. E. acc. *hí, heo*.

It, nom. and obj., has dropt the *h* of the O. E. form *hit*. 'Hit' is the regular neuter of 'he (hi)', by addition of the neuter ending -*t* : compare 'tha*t*', 'wha*t*', Lat. 'i*d*', 'quo*d*', &c. 'It', dative, has taken the place of O. E. *him*, the regular inflexion.

Its stands for O. E. *his*. The form was unknown before the sixteenth century, occurring but rarely in Shakespeare, and not at all in the translation of the Bible ; the meaning being given by 'his' (the regular O. E. form) and 'thereof'. The old possessive, *his*, stood for both masculine and neuter, creating an obstacle to the personifying power of the word. Milton seems to have felt this, and never uses the form 'his' in the neuter sense, while he evades the occasions of resorting to 'its'. Dryden adopted the new form fully.

From the 14th to the 17th century *hit* or *it* was sometimes used in place of *his* (neut.) or *its ;* especially in reference to children, or depreciatingly. 'That which groweth of *it* own accord ' (*Levit.* xxv. 5). 'The innocent milk in *it* most innocent mouth ' (*Winter's Tale*, iii. 2).

From the 14th to the 16th century, ' *the* own ' was sometimes used in place of '*his* (*its*) own '. ' Gold, which of *the* own nature is a thing so unprofitable, &c. ' (Sir T. More's *Utopia*, ii. : Robinson's transl., 1556).

There is a curious contrast between the possessive inflexion of nouns and this possessive. The nouns so inflected are almost exclusively names of persons, while 'it' is the pronoun of things. We cannot say ' *the room's* height ', but we can say ' *its* height '.

The form ' of it ' is sometimes to be preferred. When the noun is emphatic, the preposition is preferable : thus, ' the weight *of it* ', ' the value *of it* ', better enables us to throw the emphasis on the noun, than if we were to say ' *its* weight ', ' *its* value '.

They, the modern form of O. E. *thá*, the common nom. plur.

of the O. E. definite article, began to drive out the regular O.
E. plural, *hi* (later *hig, heo*) in the 13th century.

Their, theirs. 'Their', the modern form of the O. E.
thára, the common genitive plural of the O. E. def. art.,
similarly usurped the place of the regular O. E. *hira, heora ;
hire, heore.* The gen. ending is preserved. 'Theirs' is a double
genitive, like 'ours', 'yours', 'hers' (§ 2).

Them is the dat. pl. of the def. art. *thǽm, thám,* replacing
the regular O. E. *him* (later *heom, hem*). The obj. 'them' is a
new application of the dat. form, in place of the O. E. acc. *hi*
(*hig, heo*). But for this transference of the dat. form, we should
have expected 'they' for obj. as well as nom., O. E. *thá* serving
both purposes.

This and that have no case inflexion ; they have a
plural inflexion, these, those.

This was varied for gender in O. E. : *thes* (m.), *theós* (fem.),
this (n.). The neuter form has been extended to all genders.
The common O. E. plur. was *thás ;* later *thes*, **these**, *thise,*
this.

That was originally the neuter of the def. art. : *se, the* (m.),
seó (f.), *thœt* (n.). By the 13th century it was extended to all
genders ; and next century, it had full demonstrative force.
The plur. **those** is O. E. *thás,* borrowed in the 14th century
from 'this'. 'That' had previously kept its regular plur. *thá,
tho,* the plur. of the definite article.

The Indefinite pronoun **one,** in the sense of '*one* cannot
be sure of that', is declined in the singular, but has no plural :
'*one's* legitimate expectations should be respected'.

'One' as in 'the young *ones*', is declined like a noun : 'one,
'one's ; *plural,* 'ones, ones' '.

Other has poss. sing. 'other's' ; plur. nom. 'others', poss.
'others'' ; like a noun. The O. E. plur. was 'other*e*' ; hence
'other' was often used as plur. between the dropping of the old
inflexion and the adding of the regular modern inflexion -*s.*
'Another' is simply 'an other'.

'None', 'any', 'each', 'either', 'neither', &c., take the
possessive inflexion : 'none's', &c.

4. The Reflexive Pronouns are marked by the
word **self.**

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1*st person :* Myself, (ourself)	Ourselves
2*nd person :* Thyself, yourself	Yourselves
Demonstratives : { Himself, herself, itself, Oneself, one's self.	Themselves

'Self' adds emphasis. It was originally an adjective (=*same*), joined to nouns and pronouns, and inflected regularly. Nom. *ic self*(*a*), gen. *min selfes*, dat. *me selfum*, acc. *me selfne.* Then the dative of the pronoun was sometimes inserted between the two : 'ic *me* self (or silf)', 'thu *the* silf', 'he *him* silf'; 'we *us* silfe', 'ge *eow* silfe', 'hi *him* silfe '.

The dative of the Personal Reflexives was turned into genitive in the 13th century, 'self' having come to be regarded as a noun. Thus 'I *me* self' became *'I mi* (my) self'; 'thu *the* self' became 'thu *thi* (thy) self'; and so *"ourself, yourself'.* These last were plurals, the -*e* and -*en* inflexions being dropt ; but they necessarily conformed to the usage of nouns in '-*elf*', and became 'ourselves ', 'yourselves' as plurals, and 'ourself', 'yourself' as singulars.

The dative of the demonstratives remains, except in two cases. '*One*self' is frequently written ' *one's* self '. And '*his own* self ', '*their precious* selves ', &c., show that with a qualifying word before 'self' (which is then regarded as a noun), the poss. forms, 'his ', 'their', &c., may be used. '*Her*self', '*it*self' contain the dative forms '*her* ', '*it* ', not the possessive forms 'her ', 'its '.

5. The Interrogative Pronouns that undergo declension are **who** and **what**.

Who (O.E. *hwá*, masc. and fem.) ; poss. **whose** (O. E. *hwæs*) ; dative and objective, **whom** (O.E. *dat. hwæm, hwám*), The -*e* of 'whose' is not inflexional ; it merely indicates that the *o* is long : the -*s* is a true genitive ending. The O. E. acc. *hwone* gave way to the dat. form in the 13th century : the -*m* of 'whom' preserves the old dative ending.

'Who' may also be regarded as a modern objective form, side by side with ' whom '. For many good writers and speakers say '*who* are you talking *of*'? ' *who* does the garden belong to ? ' ' *who* is this *for* ? ' ' *who* from ? ' &c.

What (O. E. *hwæt*, neut. : compare § 3, 'it'); poss. **whose** (O. E. *hwæs*) ; dat. and obj. **what** (O. E. acc. *hwæt* ; the O. E. dat. was *hwæm, hwám*).

Which is often the nominative corresponding *in meaning* to 'whose '; but ' whose ' never was a genitive from ' which ', *historically.*

6. The Relative Pronouns have only two inflected forms : **whose** and **whom**.

Who (masc. and fem. ; sometimes neut.) can hardly be regarded as a relative till the 16th century. The poss. **whose** and the obj. **whom** had been relatives in the 12th century.

What is etymologically the neuter of 'who', but practically it is now equivalent to 'that which'. Its function as neuter relative, as well as its poss. 'whose', long ago went over to 'which' and 'that'.

Which is now the neuter practically corresponding to 'who', but till recently it was often used as masc. or fem. also. It borrowed from 'who' and 'what' the poss. 'whose'.

That is used for all genders and both numbers. It is indeclinable; but it supplies the want of a poss. by borrowing 'whose' from 'who' and 'what'. 'That' became clearly relative in the 12th century. Chaucer indicates distinctions of gender and case by associating a demonstrative with it: 'that *he*' = 'who', or 'that' (nom.); 'that *his*' = 'whose'; 'that *him*' = 'whom' or 'that' (obj.).

Certain *Compound Relatives* take the possessive inflexion. 'I would not hurt a hair of her head, *whose ever* daughter she may be' (Goldsmith, *Good-Natured Man*, v.) '*Whose* tongue *soe'er* speaks false not truly speaks' (Shak., *King John*, iv. 3).

Substitutes for Relative Inflexions.

When we come to discriminate the two relatives—the co-ordinating and the restrictive—we find the modes of expressing the case-meanings of them in practice to be somewhat complicated.

To begin with **who**. When we have occasion to express the idea of *strict personal possession*, we may say **whose**, and also **of whom**: 'God, *whose* offspring we are', '*of whom* we are the offspring'. Of course when the meaning is not personal possession, but *reference*, 'of whom' is used, or 'whom—of'; 'he encountered the keeper, *of whom* he knew nothing', '*whom* he knew nothing *of*'.

Which. When we have to use a possessive form of the neuter relative of co-ordination, we have a choice between **of which, whereof**, and **whose**. The preferable form is 'of which', or 'which—of'; the other forms are better suited to the restrictive relative: 'the alkaline bases, *of which* the peculiarity is'; 'the doctrines in question, *of which* this is the sum', '*which* this is the sum *of*'. The forms 'whose', 'whereof', are also admitted; but perspicuity is gained by reserving them for the other relative. 'They agreed in regarding the national voice, *whose* (co-ordinating) independence they maintained, as expressed by the representatives of the people in parliament.'

That. No inflexion is provided for the relative of restriction. To express the meaning corresponding to the possessive inflexion, these are the forms: **that of, whereof,** and **whose.**

The first is unmistakable, and to be preferred. The others serve for the co-ordinating relatives; but they have, to the ear familiar with idiomatic English, still more the restrictive effect : 'the person *that* I gave you the name *of*'—'the person *whose* name I gave you'; 'the tribunal of public opinion is one *whose* decisions it is not easy to despise'—'one *that* it is not easy to despise the decisions *of*'; 'I could a tale unfold *whose* lightest word', &c., could not be conveniently changed into 'that—of'.

The form 'whereof' is only one of a class of compounds— 'wherein', 'whereto', &c.—that possess great convenience in expressing the prepositional constructions of the relative. They correspond by preference, but not exclusively, to the restrictive relative 'that'. 'The point *wherein* I erred', 'the point *that* I erred *in* (restrictive). 'And be not drunk with wine, *wherein* is excess' (co-ordinating, '*in which*').

Some grammarians would confine the use of 'whose' to persons, but the restriction has never been in force; there is nothing to justify it.

7. Nouns after Plural Possessives. As regards the possessive inflexion generally, it is to be noted that *an abstract noun following a plural possessive should not be made plural* ; as 'we have changed *our mind*', 'we would lay down *our life*'; 'men's *reason* should bid them regard their *health*'. The plural is not required in such an expression as 'let not your *hearts* be troubled'. (See *Case of Nouns*, end.)

Scotticism in the possessive case : ' *To-morrow's* morning', for ' *to-morrow* morning'; ' *Sunday's* morning'.

INFLEXION OF ADJECTIVES.

I. Adjectives are inflected to signify differences of degree : ' great, great*er*, great*est* '. This is called their **Comparison.**

In many languages adjectives are inflected to mark the gender of the nouns they are joined to ; in modern English no difference is made on this account. Nor does the case or number of the noun affect the adjective in modern English. Our language has gained in simplicity and ease by discarding these adjective

inflexions, and has lost only a certain power of varying the order of words. But in the oldest English, the Adjective was fully inflected for gender, number, and case; indeed, it had also a special declension when preceded by a demonstrative.

In the 14th century, the inflexional endings of the Adjective had dwindled down to -e, which often appears as a separate syllable, after a demonstrative, or before a plural noun. Dr. Morris quotes an excellent illustration from the opening lines of Chaucer's *Prologue to the Canterbury Tales* :—

> " Whan Zephirus eek with his *swetĕ* breethe
> Enspired hath in every holte and heethe
> The *tendrĕ* croppĕs, and the *yongĕ* sonne
> Hath in the Ram his *halfĕ* cours ironne,
> And *smalĕ* fowlĕs maken melodie."

In O. E., adjectives borrowed from Norman-French sometimes took -es (or -s) in the plural : ' parties *meridionales* ' (Maundeville), ' the best of all vertues, that *cardinales* ben called ' (Langley), ' places *delitables* ', ' *capitalles* lettres ' (Chaucer)

In cases like ' motives ', ' worthies ', ' incapables ', ' extremes', ' brilliants ', ' contemporaries ', ' greens ', &c., the omission of the nouns throws the force of these upon the adjectives, which take the noun inflexion also, and thus become to all intents and purposes nouns.

2. There are said to be **three degrees of Comparison** ; the **Positive**, the **Comparative**, and the **Superlative**.

The Positive is the Adjective in its **simple or uninflected form** : ' great ', ' broad ', ' high '.

The Comparative is formed by **adding -er to the Positive** : ' great*er* ', ' broad*er* ', ' high*er* '.

The Superlative is formed by **adding -est to the Positive** : ' great*est* ', broad*est* ', ' high*est* '.

The comparative ending -er shows an -r replacing an earlier -s : compare Sanskrit -jans, -jas. The Superlative -est is formed by adding -t to the comparative suffix : compare Sansk. -jansta, -istha.

An old comparative ending -ter, -ther (Sansk. -tar-, Greek and Latin -ter- : from the root of Lat. *trans, through*, ' going beyond or farther '), remains in a few examples : ' after ', ' other ', ' whe-ther ', ' either ', ' neither ', ' under '.

An old superlative ending -ma is seen in ' former ' (O. E. for-ma, superlative of ' fore ' : which we have made a comparative by adding -er) ; and also in many words ending in -most :

'foremost', 'inmost', 'utmost', &c. This -*most* is the O. E. -*mest* : -*m*- + -*est*, a double superlative ending ; *not* the 'most' prefixed to adjectives, as '*most* careful '.

3. Modifications in spelling take place in certain cases.

(1.) Adjectives ending in -*e silent* drop the -*e* before -*er* and -*est :* 'white', comparative 'whit-*er*', superlative 'whit-*est*'; 'remot*e*, remot*er*, remot*est*'; 'abl*e*, abl*er*, abl*est*'.

(2.) When the adjective ends in -*y preceded by a consonant*, the -*y* is changed into -*i* : 'hol-*y*, hol-i-*er*, hol-i-*est*'; 'happ-*y*, happ-i-*er*, happ-i-*est*'; 'balm-*y*, balm-i-*er*, balm-i-*est* '.

When a vowel precedes -*y*, -*er* and -*est* are added without any change : ' coy, coy-*er*, coy-*est* '; ' gay, gay-*er*, gay-*est* '.

(3.) A final *consonant preceded by a short accented vowel* is doubled before -*er* and -*est* : 'red, red-*d-er*, red-*d-est* '; ' sad, sadd*ér*, sadd*est* '; ' big, big*ger*, big*gest* '.

Final -*l* preceded by an *unaccented* vowel is often doubled : ' crúel, crúel-*l-er*, crúel-*l-est* '; ' frightful, frightful*ler*, frightful*lest* '.

4. When a word has more than two syllables, or is a compound, the comparison usually takes place by means of the adverbs more and most; '*more* singular, *most* singular '; ' *more* fruitful, *most* fruitful '.

This substitute for the regular inflexion dates from the 13th century. It has made its way very largely by being a useful help towards *euphony*. When a word has already three syllables, the addition of the inflexion for degree makes it too hard to pronounce, and painful to hear ; even though the accent were below the first syllable. So when a word is already a compound, as ' faith-*ful* ', there is a similar objection to compounding it still further.

Even with dissyllables generally, the effect of adding -*er* and -*est* may occasionally sound harsh ; and therefore the second method is followed, as 'more *earnest* ', 'more *prudent* '.

Another reason for preferring *more* and *most* is that *-er and -est are native suffixes, and best suited to native words*. Most words of three syllables and upwards are of classic origin, and their inflexion would produce hybrids. The old writers, however, were not bound by these considerations. We find, in Sidney, 'repiningest'; in Bacon, 'ancienter' and 'honourablest'; in Hooker, not only 'learnedest' (a Saxon word), but 'famousest', 'solemnest', 'virtuousest'; in Fuller, 'eloquenter', 'eminentest'. In our own day, Carlyle has many such examples.

Any adjective may be compared by 'more' and 'most', if the ear is better satisfied with the combination of sounds produced. 'It is *most* true'; 'a *more* worthy course'. 'Thus doing, you shall be *most fair, most rich, most wise, most all*: you shall dwell upon superlatives'. (Sidney).

5. Certain comparatives in -ior, derived from the Latin, as 'interior', 'exterior', 'superior', 'inferior', 'anterior', 'posterior', 'prior', 'ulterior', 'senior', 'junior', 'major', 'minor', **are not proper and full English Comparatives.** The ending *-ior* is cognate with the English ending; but they are *not followed by 'than' in composition*. We say 'senior *to* —', not 'senior *than* his brother'.

6. Irregular and Defective Comparison is exemplified in a few instances.

Good } Well }	Better	Best.
Bad } Evil } Ill }	Worse	Worst.

Good, O. E. *gód*, has neither comparative nor superlative. **Well** here is the predicate adjective (as in 'Are you *well* ?'); also uninflected. **Better, Best** (O. E. *betera, bet(e)st*), had lost their positive (*bet* or *bat*), even in the oldest English extant.

Bad came in about the 13th century. Chaucer sometimes uses 'badder'. **Evil** (O. E. *yfel*) and **Ill** (a cognate Scandinavian form) are not inflected. **Worse** (O. E. *wyrsa*) and **worst** (O. E. *wyrrest, wyrst*) are formed from a lost positive *weor*. The *-s-* in 'worse' is a relic of the oldest form of the *-er* ending: contrast the Danish '*vær-re*', which has long appeared in Northern English (including Scotch) as '*warre*', '*war*' (worse).

Little	Less	Least.
Much } Many }	More	Most.

Little (O. E. *lytel*) supplies from a different root (*las*, 'infirm ') comp. **less** (O. E. *læs-sa* another relic of the *-s* ending), and superl. **least** (O. E. *læs-t, i e. læs-est*). **Lesser**, a double compar., is an admitted form : 'the greater light to rule the day, and the *lesser* light to rule the night ' (*Gen.* i. 16) ; 'the *lesser* Asia ', 'the *lesser* grey centres of the brain '. **Littlest** occurs once in Shak. (*Ham*. iii. 2.) : 'the *littlest* doubts '. This, however, is in a special contrast where it is desirable to show the form 'little '.

Much (O. E. *mic-el*, later *michel, muchel, moche*) is from the root *ma(g)h* ('grow, become great '). **More** (O. E. *mara* = *mah-ra*) is used as the comp. of both 'much ' and 'many '. *Mo, moe*, a shortened form, is common in the Elizabethan age, and is found in Scotch as *mœ* (the comp. of 'many '). **Most** is O. E. *mœst* (= *mah-st*). **Many** (O. E. *maneg*) " contains the root *mang*, a nasalized form of *mag* (*mah*) ". (Morris).

Old	Elder } Older }	Eldest. } Oldest. }

Old, O. E. *cald ;* **elder**, O. E. *yldra, eldra ;* **eldest**, O. E. *yldest, eldest*. The modification of the vowel in ' yld- ' ' eld- ' is due to the influence of a lost *-i-* preceding the endings. (Compare 'man, men ', &c. : p. 126, § 3). So ' lang ', comp. 'lengra ' superl ' lengest '; 'strang ', strengra, strengest '; ' geong ' (young) 'gyngra ', ' gyngest ', &c.

Older oldest, formed directly from ' old ', are now the common inflexions. The general use of these has gradually confined ' elder ', ' eldest ', to living beings. ' Elder ' has lost part of the comparative use ; we say ' which is *the elder*?' but we have ceased to say ' he is *elder than* his brother '.

Nigh	Nigher	Nighest, Next.
Near	Nearer	Nearest.
Far	Farther	Farthest.
[Forth]	Further	Furthest. } Furthermost. }

The first couple ' nigh ', ' near ', look regular. But the really regular form would be an apparent mixture : ' nigh, near, next '.

Nigh, O. E. *neáh, neh*, later *neih, negh*. **Near**, O. E. *nýra, neárra* was the regular compar. of *neah;* it began to be used as positive about the 12th century, though it was not quite disused as compar. till the 17th century. **Next** is O. E. *nehst* (= *neah-st, neh-st*). Thus **nearer** is etymologically a double compar., and **nearest** has really the modern superl. added to the old compar. form.

Far, O. E. *feor*, had O. E. compar. *fyrra*, and superl. *fyrrest*. The later form of *fyrra, ferre*, took on the common ending (like *nerre, nerrer, nearer*) and became a double compar., *ferrer*. *Farrer, farrest*, remain in Scotch; but **farther, farthest**, the English forms, have admitted *-th-* from 'further', 'furthest', on a mistaken analogy.

The adv. 'forth' had no adjective cognate in O. E. **Further** (O. E. *furthra*), **furthest**, are regularly formed. The O. E. superl. was *furth-m-est;* whence 'furthermost'. 'Furthermore' is an adv. (used with the force of a conjunction).

[Rathe	Rather	Rathest.]
[A, œr	Ere	Erst.]
Late	Latter } Later }	Last. } Latest. }

Rathe (O. E. *hrœd*), 'quick', 'early'; **rather** (O. E. *hrœthra*); and **rathest** (O. E. *hrathost*)—died out as adjectives in the 17th century. The adv. 'rather' (O. E. *hrathor*) remains, but in the metaphorical sense of 'by preference', 'preferably', which appeared as early as the 12th century.

The O. E. adv. *œr* ('formerly', 'before') is radically connected with the adv. *i* ('ever', 'always'). It appears in 'ear-ly', for which *œr, ere*, is still used in Scotch : as, 'an *œr* crap' (an *early* crop), and, adverbially, 'to work late and *œr*'. **Ere** is O. E. *œrra* ('former'), and **erst** is O. E. *œrest;* but the adjective use of the words is now obsolete.

Late (O. E. *lœt*, 'slow', 'late'); **latter** (O. E. *latra*, later *lattre*); **last** (O. E. *latost, latst:* softened, like 'betst' into 'best', in the 12th century). **Later, latest**, are regular and unmodified.

[Fore]	Form er	Foremost (O.E. *fyrmest*). }
		First (O.E. *fyr(re)st*). }
[(Be)hind]	Hinder	Hindmost } Hindermost } (O.E. *hindemest*).
[Af, off]	After	Aftermost (O.E. *œfte(r)mest*).
[In]	Inner	Inmost, innermost (O.E. *innemest*).

[Out,	Outer }	Outmost, outermost }	(O.E.
O.E. *ut*]	Utter }	Utmost, uttermost }	*utemest*).
Mid	—	Midmost (O. E. *medemest*).	
[Up,	Upper }	Upmost, uppermost }	(O.E. *yfemest*,
O.E. *uf-*]	Over }	Overmost }	*ymest*).
High	Higher	Highest, Highermost	
Low	Lower	Lowest, Lowermost	
—.	Under	Undermost	
[(Be)neath]	Nether	Nethermost (O.E. *nithemest*.)	

'Fore' (adv. 'before') made in O. E. a superl. adj. *for-ma*, to which there was added later the compar. suffix, making **former**. The addition of the superl. suffix *-est* made a double superl., O. E. *fyrmest*, our **foremost**. **First** (O. E. *fyr(re)st*) is the regular superl. form.

Many other forms now obsolete are found in our old writers : 'hinderest', 'upperest', 'overest', &c. We have also some others in *-most* : 'eastmost', 'westmost', 'endmost', 'topmost', 'sternmost', &c.

7. Double comparatives and superlatives

are to be avoided ; as 'more sur*er* punishments', 'wors*er* far', 'the *most* bold*est*', 'the *most* unkind*est* cut of all'.

We have just seen not a few cases of double inflexion, chiefly however in circumstances where the common ending has been added to an older ending no longer familiar in the required sense : 'less*er*', 'utm-*ost*', &c.

So when a word has of itself the force of a comparative or superlative it should not be compared ; as 'the *chiefest* among ten thousand', 'the *extremest* verge', 'a *more perfect* way'. Such cases arise chiefly from the desire of exceptional emphasis.

8. Adjectives not compared.—Adjectives ex-

pressing meanings that do not admit of change of degree are not compared.

Such are the pronominal adjectives (this, that, his, their, &c.), the definite numeral adjectives (two, fourth, both, &c.), and many adjectives of quality.

The following are examples : 'Almighty', 'certain', 'chief', 'circular', 'continual', 'dead', 'empty', 'extreme', 'eternal', 'false', 'filial', 'fluid' 'full', 'golden', 'inexpiable', 'infallible', 'intolerable', 'infinite', 'living', 'paternal', 'perfect', 'perpetual', 'royal', 'supreme', 'universal', 'void'. Some are already words expressing the highest possible degree of the quality (Almighty). Others have no shades of meaning : a

thing must be either perpendicular or not, dead or not dead ; there are no degrees. Figuratively, however, we ascribe degrees to some of these attributes. When we speak of an assertion as ' *more* or *less certain* ', we do not mean that one assertion is ' certain ' absolutely, and that another is more so ; we mean that the other approaches ' *nearer to* being certain ', neither of the two being absolutely and completely certain. So ' *more or less full* ', 'fluid', &c. Milton's description of Satan's despair is hyperbolical : ' And in the *lowest* deep, a *lower* deep '.

9. Another mode of expressing the superlative degree is exemplified in ' King of kings ', ' Lord of lords ', ' bravest of the brave '.

To express comparison there is also the peculiar idiom seen in the examples, 'too evident to require proof'; 'too much a man of the world to be imposed upon'.

10. The Comparative is used when two things are compared; the Superlative, when more than two are compared.

> ' Of *two* such lessons, why forget
> The *nobler* and the *manlier* one?'

But the rule is not strictly adhered to. Writers and speakers continually use the superlative in comparing two things : ' the *best* of *two* ', ' the *least* of *two* '. ' This court had been the *most* magnificent of the *two* ' (Thackeray). Less frequently the comparative is used for the superlative : ' I read the whole of Tacitus, Juvenal, and Quintilian. The *latter* . . . is seldom sufficiently appreciated ' (J. S. Mill). ' The *former* seemed the *stranger* sensation of the *three* ' (Cooper). Like many other dual forms the comparative degree is superfluous ; and perspicuity would be equally served by using the same form of comparison for two, as for more than two.

11. The Comparative and Superlative are sometimes used by way of eminence ; as ' the *most* High ', ' the *ruder* and *more barren* parts of the island '.

In expressing mere intensity, the adverbs ' more ' and ' most ' are made use of instead of ' very ', ' greatly ', &c. ' His argument was *most* (very) convincing.' There is in such cases no *express* comparison, and hence the name, the superlative of *eminence.*

INFLEXION OF ADVERBS.

I. The only inflexion of Adverbs is Comparison. Some, from the nature of their meaning, cannot be compared, as 'now', 'then', 'there', 'never', 'secondly', 'infinitely'. When the signification admits of degree, they are compared **in the same manner as Adjectives :** 'soon, soon*er*, soon*est*'; 'often', 'often*er*', 'often*est*'; 'pleasantly, *more* pleasantly, *most* pleasantly'.

Adverbs are usually longer than the corresponding adjectives, and therefore more rarely admit of comparison by *-er* and *-est*. Such cases as 'latelier', 'gentlier' (Tennyson), 'proudlier' (Carlyle), are exceptions, allowed by euphony. In the old writers, such terms were more common : 'wiselier', 'easilier', 'rightlier', 'hardliest', 'earliest', are instances, but not for imitation. Coleridge uses 'safeliest'.

2. A few Adverbs coincide with irregular Adjectives : 'well, better, best'; 'badly or ill, worse, worst'; 'much, more, most', &c.

INFLEXION OF VERBS.

I. Relations to be expressed.—The Verb is the Part of Speech that makes an affirmation ; and in making an affirmation we may have reference to such circumstances as time, conditionality or unconditionality, person, and number.

Methods exist in every language for expressing these numerous relations. In some languages, as the Greek, the verb itself is changed or inflected for nearly every variety of time, person, number, &c. In English the actual inflexions are few ; but by means of auxiliary words we can express all the various circumstances of affirmation.

2. The commonly enumerated inflexions of the Verb are *Voice, Mood, Tense, Person, Number.*

3. With reference to **Voice**, Verbs are **Active** or **Passive**. Every Transitive Verb has an active form, or voice, and a passive form, or voice. ' Cæsar *defeated* Pompey ' (active) ; ' Pompey *was defeated* by Cæsar ' (passive).

Since the *object* of the transitive verb becomes the subject of the affirmation in the passive voice, where there is no object (as in *intransitive* verbs) there can be no change of voice. ' His ardour *cooled* ' is intransitive, and admits no such variation as occurs in the sentence, ' *he* struck *the ball* ', ' *the ball* was struck '.

The passive voice expresses the same fact as the active, but in a form that calls attention to the object of the action, rather than to the agent.

Indeed, the agent may be unknown, and therefore there would be a blank in the affirmation if we had not the passive form. ' The glass was broken ', is a complete assertion, although we may not be able to name the agent, or consider it unimportant to do so.

The English has no real inflexion for the Passive Voice. The single word ' hight ' (' *is* or *was* called '), O. E. *hatte, heht,* is a very doubtful example. We require to take in the help of another verb (§ 14). Where a passive inflexion exists in languages nearly allied to the English, it seems to have arisen from a mode of applying a reflexive pronoun. Old Norse *at kalla,* ' to call ', *at kallast* (for *at kallask,* = *at kalla-sik,* ' to call-(one)self '), ' to be called '. Danish *at kalde* shows a still further worn passive, *at kaldes,* ' to be called '. So the Greek passive forms were at first adopted from the middle voice (reflexive). The Latin passive is most probably a reflexive formation : ' *amor* ' (' I am loved ') = *amos* = *amo + se* (' I love self ') ; ' amaris ' (' thou art loved ') = *amas-i-s* = *amas + se* (' thou lovest self ') ; ' amatur ' (' he is loved ') = *amat-u-se* = *amat + se* (' he loves self '), &c. Compare French *se mêler,* ' to be mingled ', *s'appeler ,* ' to be called ', &c.

4. The Moods are the *Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative,* and *Infinitive.* Under the same head we may include the *Participle* and the *Gerund.*

Mood means the *manner* of the action.

Indicative and Subjunctive.—One important distinction of manner is the distinction of unconditional and conditional.

'I *see* the signal', is unconditional; '*if* I *see* the signal', is the same fact expressed in the form of a condition. The one form is said to be in the *Indicative* mood, the mood that simply *states or indicates* the action; the other form is in the *Subjunctive*, conditional, or conjunctive mood. There is sometimes a slight variation made in English, to show that an affirmation is made as a condition. The mood is called 'subjunctive', because the affirmation *is subjoined to* another affirmation: '*if I see the signal*, I will call out'.

Such forms as 'I may see', 'I can see', have sometimes been considered as a variety of mood, to which the name 'Potential' is given. But this cannot properly be maintained. There is no trace of any inflexion corresponding to this meaning, as we find with the subjunctive. Moreover, such a mood would have itself to be subdivided into indicative and subjunctive forms: 'I may go', 'if I may go'. And farther, we might proceed to constitute other moods on the same analogy, as, for example, an obligatory mood—'I must go', or 'I ought to go'; a mood of resolution—'I will go, you shall go'; a mood of gratification—'I am delighted to go'; of deprecation—'I am grieved to go'. The only difference in the two last instances is the use of the sign of the infinitive 'to', which does not occur after 'may', 'can' 'must', 'ought', &c.; but that is not an essential difference. Some grammarians consider the form 'I do go', a separate mood, and term it the emphatic mood. But all the above objections apply to it likewise, as well as many others.

The Imperative mood is the expression of command, desire, entreaty.

From the nature of the meaning, it can be used only in the second person. In modern English, there is no inflexion for it; the simple form of the verb is employed: 'bind', 'go'. In O. E. the Imperative singular was expressed simply by the root form of the verb: 'bind', 'ga'; there was no mood suffix. For the plural, the usual ending for the second person *-th* was added: 'bind-*a-th*', 'ga-*th*'. Yet when the pronoun followed, 'bind-*e* ge' came to take the place of 'bind-*ath* ge', probably through a confused substitution of the subjunctive. Thus the sing. and plur. forms easily became identical. As late, however, as the end of the 14th century, Chaucer retained the plur. personal ending:

"Herkn*eth* these blisful bridd*ës (birds)* how they sing,
And seth *(see)* the fresh*ë* flower*ës* how they spring."

In making a proposal or expressing a desire in reference to *first* or *third* persons, there is no inflexional form available; we substitute the subjunctive or an auxiliary (commonly 'let') : as

"Well, *sit we* down,
And *let us hear* Bernardo speak of this". (*Ham.* i. 1.)

The term imperative is somewhat misleading, as the mood is employed in supplication as well as in command ; and for the strongest forms of command it is insufficient. The legislature uses ' shall ' to signify its commands ; another form used in common life is ' must '.

5. The Infinitive, as ' to go ', is not a mood in the same sense as the others. It is the form of the verb that contains neither affirmation nor command, but *merely names the action in the manner of a noun* : ' *to reign* is worth ambition ', for ' the act of reigning '.

There is no time signified by the infinitive as there is by the other moods. The name ' infinitive ' expresses the fact that it is not *limited* in those circumstances of time that limit the other parts, which parts are called collectively the *Finite verb*.

The preposition ' to ' is not essential to the infinitive, and is dropped after certain verbs. The O. E. infinitive was formed by a suffix *-an ;* as ' bind*an* ' (' to bind '), ' writ*an* ' (' to write '). It was partially inflected like a noun, taking a dative in *-e* after ' to ' for the expression of purpose : ' *to* bindan*ne* ', or ' -en*ne* ' ' *to* writan*ne* ' or ' -en*ne* '—our gerund. By the 13th century the infin. *-an* had become weakened to *-en* and *-e*, and sometimes the *-e* was silent ; the dat. *-anne, -enne* had also fallen away to *-ene, -en, -e* ; and ' to ' not only remained with the dat. or gerund meaning, but was also transferred to the simple infinitive. The two forms thus became identical, and ' to ' now appears in the infin., whether it be nom. or obj. or dat.

The form ' bind*ing* ,' ' go*ing* ', is also an infinitive of the verb.

This form in *-ing* fulfils the function of a noun in the same manner as the other : ' *going* (subj.) is sad ', ' he dreads *going* ' (obj.) ; ' *binding* (= *to bind*) themselves by these terms was imprudent '. This is the modern practical usage ; and, in cases like the last, while we regard ' binding ' as equivalent to a noun, being subject to ' was imprudent ', we acknowledge its force as a verb by saying that ' themselves ' is object to it.

Historically, the connexion between the old infin. in *-en* and the modern form in *-ing* is not quite satisfactorily established. In the 13th century, indeed, the participial termination *-ende* or *-inde* was occasionally used in place of the dat. infin. or gerund form ; and in the 14th century both forms were sometimes turned into *-ing*. But presently this *-ing* infin. died out. Again, an infin. *-ing* appears for *-en* about the beginning of the 16th century ; but it is in a different construction from the

modern use of *-ing*. In the same century even the *-en* of past participles was interchanged with *-ing*. Some stress might justly be laid on the strong tendency to convert all similar endings into *-ing*; but most probably the *-ing* should be traced to the verbal noun in *-ung* (later *-ing*), the preposition 'of' having dropt away, leaving the verbal noun and the following noun or pronoun in close proximity. According to this view, the real explanation of the above example is : *binding* (verbal noun); [*of* prep. omitted]; *themselves* (governed, not by 'binding', but by 'of'). But, admitting this to be the historical origin of the *-ing* form in such constructions, the practical usage has broken quite away from it.

6. The Participle affords a peculiar and convenient means of joining a subordinate fact to a principal affirmation.

The name 'Participle' was given because of the supposed *participation*, or sharing, in the functions of the verb, the adjective, and the noun.

Speaking correctly, the participle is neither an adjective nor a noun. Adjectives are derived from participles, and verbal nouns occur with the form of the participle in 'ing', but derived in reality from other sources. The participle coincides with the verb in having a subject and (if transitive) an object, and in expressing some varieties of the action ; but it has no power of independent affirmation. In construction it is subsidiary to a verb in some of the finite moods (indicative, &c.), and derives its affirmative force from the verb thus coupled. '*Ascending* the mountain, we had a wide prospect.' This is a convenient and elegant abbreviation for '*we ascended* the mountain, *and* had &c.' '*Beaten* at one point, we made for another ' = '*we were* beaten, *and* made—'. 'I saw him crossing the street ' : 'I saw him, and *when I saw him, he was* crossing the street '.

The Participle has **two principal meanings,** and **three forms.**

The **present, imperfect, incomplete** participle expresses an action as doing, and not yet finished ; and the form is in **-ing** (O.E. *-end, -ende, -inde*) : ' beat*ing* ', ' go*ing* ', ' call*ing* '.

The **past** or **complete** participle expresses an action as done and finished ; and the forms are **-n** and **-d** : ' beat*en* ', ' go*ne* ', ' call*ed* '.

In transitive verbs the participle in *-ing* has also an *active* signification, as 'beating', 'calling'; and those in *-n* and *-d* have a *passive* signification, as 'beaten', 'called', and form the basis of our passive voice. In intransitive verbs, the only difference of meaning is that of incomplete and complete: 'going', 'gone'; 'coming', 'come' (O. E. '*cumen*, comen ').

Both the present and the past participles may often be regarded as indefinite, the *time* of the action varying according to the tense of the verb of the principal clause.

The new form *-ing* came in during the 12th century. The older forms gave way gradually; the Northern *-and* being used down till about the beginning of the 17th century.

The ending *-n* (or *en*, *-e-* being merely a connecting or 'binding' letter) belongs to the verbs called strong or old. It has fallen off from many of them (§ 57, &c.). It is the same as the *-en* formative of adjectives ('gold*en*', 'wood*en*'), denoting possession of the properties implied in the root; that is, it expresses the action of the verb as communicated to the subject that the participle is joined to.

The ending *-d* (or *-ed*, *-e-* being merely connective) belongs to the verbs called weak or new. It is sometimes modified to *-t* (§ 62, &c.). It is cognate with Goth. *-das*, Lat. *tus* (= *tos*), Gr. *-tos*; and has the same meaning as *-n*. It also appears similarly in a vast number of adjectives.

In the absence of any other prefix, *ge-* was generally prefixed to the past participle (and often to other parts of the verb) in O. E. This *ge-* was later modified to *y-, i-* : 'y'broken ', 'y'gone ', '*i*made ', '*i*ronne ' (run).

In many languages (including Old English), the participle is inflected to agree with the subject in gender, number, and case, which gives it the appearance of an adjective. But it is still essentially a verb with the limitations above stated.

The phrase, '*making an unopposed landing*' contains participle ('making'), adjective ('unopposed'), and noun ('landing'), all with participial form. So, 'a person *passing*' (part.), 'a *passing* thought' (adjective), 'the *passing* of the Douro' (noun). 'After *satisfying* the church' (part. or *infin.*) 'a *satisfying* portion' (adj.), 'a tempest *dropping* fire' (part.); 'now is the *witching* time of night' (adj).

The participle is known by its governing a noun like a verb, which neither an adjective nor a noun can do. But a participial phrase (that is a participle with its government) may be itself governed by a preposition : 'on *hearing* the news ', 'by *following* the straight course ', '*after warming* himself', &c. These are brief and elegant substitutes for a conjunction and a clause : 'when they heard the news ', 'if you follow ', 'after he had warmed '. The passive participle (the equivalent of a clause with a passive government) is known by its reference to a subject : 'after *being well warmed*, we went our way '. These forms in *-ing* may also be regarded as infinitives.

A participial phrase seems to have the farther peculiarity of being joined to a possessive : '*John's* leaving the course ', '*our* meeting the

party', '*my* admitting the fact', 'the *king's* dissolving parliament', are short expressions for 'the fact that John left', 'we met', 'the king dissolved', &c. Likewise a demonstrative adjective may be joined in the same way: '*the* sending them the light of thy Holy Spirit'; '*that* burning the capitol was a wanton outrage'.

These phrases may perhaps be best considered as infinitives governing nouns.

7. The Gerund is not a separate form in modern English, but a peculiar application of the two infinitive forms, ' to write ', and ' writing '.

In O. E. (see § 5), the dative form of the Infinitive, 'to writanne' (or '-enne') was used to express *purpose* or intention. Now that the special inflexion is dropt, ' to write' and 'for writing', the infinite forms with appropriate prepositions, give the meaning intended, and are called *gerunds* : 'I come *to write*', 'I have work *to do*', 'the course *to steer by*', 'ready *for sailing*', 'sharpened for *cutting*'. It is useful to point out this signification of these forms, partly to facilitate translation into the classical languages, and partly to explain some idioms of our own language. 'A house *to let*', 'I have work *to do*', 'there is no more to *say*', are phrases where the verb is not in the common infinitive, but in the form of the gerund. 'He is the man *to do* it, or *for doing* it.' When the ' to ' ceased in the 12th century to be a distinctive mark of the dat. infin. or gerund, 'for' was introduced to make the writer's intention clear. Hence the familiar form in 'what went ye out *for to see ?*' 'they came *for to show* him the temple '.

8. Tense is the variation of the verb to express the *time* of an action, modified by the other circumstances of completeness and incompleteness above mentioned in connexion with the participle. 'I come' (*present*), 'I came' (*past*); 'I call' (*pres.*), 'I called' (*past*).

These are the only tenses made by inflexion ; but by combination with other words, *future* time is also expressed,—'I *shall* come', 'he *will* come'. In O. E. the want of a future form was usually supplied by the present tense. (Compare § 49). These compound forms, and a great variety of modes of past, present, and future, are represented in the full scheme of the verb (§ 40).

Strong Verbs are such as form the past tense, by change of the root vowel : 'hold, held'; 'fall, fell'; 'drink, drank'; 'come, came'.

As in all the other Indo-European languages, so in English, even the *present* tense is a form considerably modified from the original root. The chief means of change in English have been vowel augmentation and the insertion of various formative suffixes before the personal endings : the Northern English 'gang' (Goth. *gagga*) is a case of reduplication (from *ga*, 'to go'), a common mode in the classical languages.

To form the *past* tense, English, like the other Indo-European languages, and particularly like the other Teutonic languages, had recourse to **Reduplication**. 'Did', O. E. *dide*, is a doubling of 'do'. The curious verb 'hight' (='was called': in O. E. also = '*is* called) appears in Goth. *haitan* ('to call'), O.E. *hatan* ; past, Goth. *hai-hait*, O. E. *hêht*, *hêt* (as well as *hatte*). Goth. *haldan* ('to hold'), O. E. *healdan* ; past, Goth. *haihald*, O.H. Germ. *hialt* (= *heihalt*), mod. Germ. *hielt*, O. E. *heold*, mod. E. 'held'. Compare Gr. τύπτω, pf. τέ-τυφα, παύω, pf. πέ-παυκα ; Lat. *pello*, pf. *pepŭli* ; *tendo* (*n* euphonic), pf. *te-tendi* ; *tundo* (*n* euphonic), *tŭ-tŭdi* ; *fugio*, pf. *fugi* (= *fu-fugi*) ; *tollo*, pf. *tŭli* (for *te-tŭli*).

The strong verbs cannot all be traced clearly to their original reduplication ; but judging from those that we can trace, we believe that the rest followed the same rule. They have also been called 'old' verbs, because they are the oldest in the language.

Weak Verbs are such as form the past tense **by adding -d to the present or simple verb :** 'love, love*d*'; 'hear, hear*d*'; 'plant, plant*ed*'; 'whip, whip*ped* or whip*t*'; 'carry, carried'; 'lead, led'; 'build, build*ed* or buil*t*'; 'buy, bought'.

The addition of -*d* is accompanied with various modifications in spelling, like those in the plural of nouns and the comparison of adjectives. 'Heard' shortens the vowel of 'hear'; 'plant*ed*' inserts a binding or connective -*e*-, otherwise it could not be pronounced ; 'whip*ped*' (final -*p* doubled after short accented vowel), and 'whip*t*' are both written, but in either case we must pronounce 'whipt'; 'carri*ed*' changes -*y* (final -*y* after a consonant) into -*i*, before the connecting -*e*- and the inflexional -*d*. 'Led' looks like a strong past ; but this is a form stripped of its earlier ending : 'led-*de*', 'læd-*de*' : the vowel is also shortened. 'Build', and some others ending in -*d* preceded by a liquid, modify the final -*d* into -*t* ; a shorter mode than the regular formation. The change of vowel in such as 'bought' from 'buy' is due, not to reduplication (like the strong verbs), but to the influence of certain vowels in ancient forms of the words.

The *-d* of the past tense is a modification of the verb 'did':
'I *loved*' being a short form for 'I *love-did*'; 'I *laid*' for 'I
lay-did'. This appears best in the Gothic forms, especially
the plural ones, which are least corrupted or worn down. The
root *lag* ('lay') formed its past tense in Gothic thus:

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
1. lag-i-*d*-a (= older lagi-*ded*-am).	lag-i-*ded*-um.
2. lag-i-*des* (= older lagi-*ded*-ta ?).	lag-i-*ded*-uth.
3. lag-i-*d*-a.	lag-i-*ded*-un.

We have already noted that the *-e-* (Goth. and O.H.G. *-i-*), is
simply a connecting link. In O.E. (as well as in Goth. and
O.H.G.) some verbs took *-o-* as the binding letter. Goth. *-ai-*,
O.H.G. *-é-*, have no extant cognate form in English.

The *weak* verbs take their name from their inability to form
a past tense without the aid of another verb, 'did': the strong
verbs double themselves, and need no foreign help. They are
called also *new* verbs, the formation being more recent than the
other. They greatly outnumber the very small force of strong
verbs; and hence the latter have been called *irregular*, being
apparent exceptions to the modern rule of forming in *-d*. The
overpowering influence of the commoner weak form has been
gradually breaking down the older strong form.

9. Person and Number. There are certain dis-
tinctions of form according as the subject of the verb
is the speaker, the person or persons spoken to, or the
persons or things spoken about; that is, for the 1st, 2nd,
and 3rd persons, singular and plural; as 'I write',
'thou writ*est*', 'he writes,' &c.

The personal suffixes were originally pronominal elements
joined on to the verb (after the tense formative). They have
almost disappeared from modern English.

The suffix of the first person singular, **-m**, remains in the
word 'am' alone (O.E. *eo-m*). It was previously *-mi* (weakened
from an earlier *-ma*) = 'I'. Compare Sanskrit *as-mi*, Gr. εἰμί
(for ἐσ-μί), Lat. *sum* (for *es-u-m*), O.H.G. *pim* (mod. Germ.
bin), O.E. (Northern) *beom* ('I be'). In O.E. 'bind*ë*', &c.,
the *-e-* is merely the connecting letter, which has usurped the
place of the real personal ending.

The suffix of the second person singular, *-st*, appears in the
present and past indicative. The root *twa, tva, ta* (= 'thou')
seems to have changed into *-ti*, and then into *-si*, which gives
the ending *-s*, common in O.E., regular in Northern English
('thou bears', 'thou binds'). The *-t* form remains in 'ar-*t*',

'was-*t*', 'wer-*t*', 'shal-*t*', 'wil-*t*'. The past tense of strong verbs dropt -*t* of the 2nd person singular, and showed no ending but -*e* : 'thu bund*e*' ('thou boundest'), 'thu feoll*e*' ('thou fellest') ; but in the 14th century the weak ending -*st* was shared with them. The peculiarities of spelling when -*st* is added are the same as when -*d* of the past tense is added.

The suffix of the third person singular, -**th**, -**s**, is descended from the demonstrative root, *ta* ('he'), seen in '*the*', '*that*'. The modified form -*ti* became in the oldest English -*th*, -*d*, and -*t*, and even in the 10th century -*s*, which is now the ordinary form. It appears only in the present indic. The same peculiarities of spelling attend the addition of -*s* as of -*st* and -*d*.

The suffixes of the plural have all been dropt in modern English. The forms in O. E. and cognate languages have been traced back to these : (1) *masi* = *ma*+*si* (=*ti*, *ta* ; *twi*, *twa*) = 'I + thou', or *ma*+*sa* = 'I+he', that is, 'we' ; (2) *tasi* = *ta* + *si* = 'thou +thou', or *ta* + *sa* = 'thou + he', that is, 'you' ; and (3) (*a*)*nti* = *an*+*ti* = 'he+he', that is, 'they'. (But this explanation of (*a*)*nti* is not universally accepted.) There is no trace of the suffix of the first person plural in English. Goth. has 'siyu-*m*' ('we are') : compare Gr. ἐσ-μεν (Doric εἰ-μές=ἐσ-μές), Lat.'su-*mus*' (*es-u-mus*). The suffix of the second person plural, -**th**, was extended in O.E. to all the plural persons of the present indicative : 'bind-*a-th*' ('we, you, they bind'), 'lær-*a-th*' ('we, you, they teach'). We have already mentioned the -*th* of the Imperative plural (§ 4). The suffix of the third person plural, -**n**, was extended in O.E. to all the plural persons of the past indicative ('bund-*on*', 'lærd-*on*') and of the present and past subjunctive ('bind*en*, -*on*', 'lær-*en*, -*on*' ; 'bund-*en*, -*on*', 'lærd-*en*, -*on*'). In the 12th century, Midland English used -*n* for the plural endings of the present indicative, while Southern English retained -*th* ; Northern English had taken -*s*, several centuries earlier, in the plural persons of the present indicative and in the plural imperative. The forms in -*en* died out of general use in the 16th century. The loss of this short syllable has been regretted by poets.

The suffix of the O. E. singular subjunctive, present and past, was -*e*, a mere remnant of fuller forms. Even this is now lost. In loose writing, the forms of the second and third persons singular of the present indicative are often used where we should expect the flexionless subjunctive ; and Mr. H. Sweet has pointed out instances of a similar usage in the second person singular past subjunctive of weak verbs in late West Saxon. For 'wert', see § 15, below.

For general purposes, all the inflexions of number and person might have been dispensed with together.

10. The English Verb retains but a very small number of inflexions compared with other languages.

' Write ', ' wrote ', ' writing ', ' written ', ' writes ', ' writest ', ' wrotest '— being seven forms,—are all the changes of a strong verb. The weak verbs, such as ' love ', have only six forms.

11. Conjugation. To bring together all the forms of the verb is to *conjugate* it. There are in English **two conjugations : the Old or Strong, and the New or Weak.**

The Old or Strong Conjugation applies to or includes solely the old, strong, or so-called Irregular verbs. They are very few in number, and they are all of native origin. The new or Weak Conjugation applies to or includes all other verbs,—an indefinitely more numerous class. In O.E. there were various conjugations both of strong and of weak verbs ; according to the change of vowel in the strong, and according to the connecting vowel in the weak. We do not enter into this subdivision and classification here.

Ordinarily, to conjugate a verb means simply to give the present and past indicative (first person singular) and the past participle. From these three forms all the others are easily derived. Thus :

(1) **Fall** *(pres.)*　　(2) **Fell** *(past)*　　(3) **Fallen** *(p. part.)*

(4) Fall-*est*　　　　(7) Fell-*est*
(5) Fall-*s*
(6) Fall-*ing.*

12. The Conjugation of the Strong or Old Verbs is seen in the following example :

To Write.

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Participle.*
Write.	Wrote.	Written.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing	1st *Person,*	(I) write	*Plur.*	1st *Person,*	(We) write
	2nd　,,	(Thou) writest		2nd　,,	(You) write
	3rd　,,	(He) writes.		3rd　,,	(They) write.

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Past Tense.

Sing. 1. (I) wrote	*Plur.* 1. (We) wrote
2. (Thou) wrotest	2. (You) wrote
3. (He) wrote.	3. (They) wrote.

IMPERATIVE : Write.   INFINITIVE : (To) write ; writing.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Writing.   *Past*, Written.

13. The Conjugation of the Weak or New Verbs is seen in the following example :

To Love.

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Participle.*
Love.	Loved.	Loved.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing. 1*st Person*, (I) love	*Plur.* 1*st Person*, (We) love
2nd ,, (Thou) lovest	2nd ,, (You) love
3rd ,, (He) loves.	3rd ,, (They) love.

Past Tense.

Sing. 1. (I) loved	*Plur.* 1. (We) loved
2. (Thou) lovedst	2. (You) loved
3. (He) loved.	3. (They) loved.

IMPERATIVE : Love.   INFINITIVE : (To) love ; loving.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Loving.   *Past*, Loved.

The Auxiliary Verbs.

14. The Auxiliary Verbs are joined to the other verbs to **assist in expressing the tenses not expressed by Inflexions.** They are : 'be', 'have', 'shall', and 'will'.

'May' and 'can' would be ranked as auxiliaries if we were to admit the potential mood into the conjugation of the verb. 'Do' is excluded as the help in making the emphatic form of the verb : it has a very much better claim to be regarded as an auxiliary in expressing negation, and in the inverted forms. These are all verbs of importance in the language.

15. To Be. A complete conjugation is pieced out by gathering forms from **three distinct roots : as, was,** and **bhu (bu).**

Present Tense.	*Past Tense.*	*Past Participle.*
Am.	Was.	Been.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing. 1. Am	*Plur.* 1. Are
2. Art	2. Are
3. Is.	3. Are.

Past Tense.

Sing. 1. Was	*Plur.* 1. Were
2. Wast, (wert)	2. Were
3. Was.	3. Were.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Sing. 1. Be	*Plur.* 1. Be
2. Be	2. Be
3. Be.	3. Be.

Past Tense.

Sing. 1. Were	*Plur.* 1. Were
2. Were, wert	2. Were
3. Were.	3. Were.

IMPERATIVE : Be.　　　　INFINITIVE : (To) be ; being.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Being.　　　　*Past*, Been.

Remains of root **as.**—'Am' is for *ar-m*, for *as-m* (§ 9).—'Art' is for *as-t* (§ 9).—'Is' was all that remained in the oldest English for *as-th* (compare Goth. and Germ. *is-t*, Gr. ἐσ-τί, Lat. *es-t*, &c.). 'Are', O.E. (Northern) *ar-on = as-on*, from the full original form *as-anti*. Sanskrit has cut off the first part, making *santi* ; Lat. *sunt* ; Southern English, *sind, sindon*. The present subjunctive and imperative forms from the same root have long been superseded in English.

Remains of root **was.** The *was*-forms ran through the whole verb (except present indic.) in O.E., but they are now confined to the past indicative and subjunctive. 'Was', O.E. *wæs*, is the regular past of the old verb, *wesan* ('to be', 'happen'). 'Wast' (§ 9) is a 14th century form, replacing O.E. *wære* (for

wǽse), which might have been expected to remain '**were**', and which has become '**wert**' (§ 9): curiously enough, the Gothic had '**wast**'.—'Were' (indicative) is O.E. *wǽron, weren*, for an older *wǽsen*: compare Gothic *wes-um, wes-uth, wes-un.* The subjunctive '**were**' has similarly lost all its endings. 'Wert' very strongly shares the general tendency of indicative second persons singular to be transferred also to the subjunctive.

Remains of root **bhu** (bu). From this came our '**be**' (as well as Lat. *fu-* in *fui*, &c.). The present, *beo(m), bist*, &c., was used in all the persons in O.E.; even in the 17th century 'be' and 'beest' fill all the persons; many examples are familiar in the Bible. 'Be', now flexionless, has superseded the other two roots in the present subjunctive and the imperative; and *wesan*, &c., gave way to it in the infinitive and participles, about the 12th century.

How 'Be' helps.—By joining the **past participle** of a *transitive* verb to the verb 'be' throughout, we make the **indefinite form of the passive voice**; as 'he *is* loved', 'we *were* loved', 'to *be* loved', '*being* loved'.

The participles make the sole exception: '**loved**' gives the meaning sufficiently without 'been', and it is also used convertibly with 'being loved'. In O. E. the meanings of these forms were rather vague: '*is* ofslægen' = '*is* or *has been* slain'; '*was* ofslægen' was simple past tense, or present perfect, or past perfect; and much of this vagueness yet remains.

With the past participle of an *intransitive* verb, 'be' forms *perfect tenses:* 'I *am* come', 'the train *was* just gone'. German retains this construction in great activity; we employ 'have' also with intransitive as well as with transitive verbs. In O.E. the participle was inflected to agree with the subject: 'hi *wǽron* cumene', 'they *were (had)* come'.

By similarly joining the **imperfect participle**, there arises **another form of the active voice**, peculiar to the English language, called the **progressive, incomplete, or imperfect** form; as 'I *am* writing', 'I *was* writing', &c. In O.E., this form was very little, if anything, more than alternative with the regular inflexion: 'ge sindon leogende' ('you *are lying*') = 'ge leogath' ('you lie').

For the progressive forms with 'have', see § 16.

In all these applications of 'be', the old verb 'weorthan' ('to be', 'to become'), was also used in O.E: 'his hors *wearth* gesiclod' ('his horse *became* sickened', '*was* taken ill'). Compare Germ. *werden.*

'Be' with the gerund expresses *purpose or intention.* 'I *am* to write' = 'I intend or purpose to write', 'I am going to write', 'I shall write'. 'I *was* to write' = 'I intended to

write'. Compare the formation of Lat. *amabo* = '(to) love + be I', 'I *was* to love', 'I *shall* love'; *bo* being a modification of the root *bhu* ('be'). Lat. *amabam* = '(to) love + be I', 'I was to love', 'I *loved*', passes from the intention to the fact. So *amavi* = *ama-fui*.

16. To Have.

Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Past Participle.
Have.	Had.	Had.

INDICATIVE MOOD.
Present Tense.

Sing.	1.	Have	*Plur.*	1.	Have
	2.	Hast		2.	Have
	3.	Has.		3.	Have.

Past Tense.

Sing.	1.	Had	*Plur.*	1.	Had
	2.	Hadst		2.	Had
	3.	Had.		3.	Had.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.
Present Tense.

Sing.	1.	Have	*Plur.*	1.	Have
	2.	Have		2.	Have
	3.	Have.		3.	Have.

Past Tense.

Sing.	1.	Had	*Plur.*	1.	Had
	2.	Had		2.	Had
	3.	Had.		3.	Had.

IMPERATIVE : Have.　　　　INFINITIVE : (To) have, having.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Having.　　　　*Past*, Had.

'Have' is a weak verb. O.E. *habban* ('to have') declined its present indic. : *hæbbe*, *hæfst* (*hafast*), *hæfth* (hafath), &c. ; past, *hæf-de* (later *hadde*) ; past part., *gehæfd*, *hæfed*, later *yhad*.

'Hadst' appears as subjunctive : writers hesitate to commit themselves to the bare form. 'If thou *hadst* said him nay, it had been sin.'

> '*Hadst* thou been killed when first thou didst presume,
> Thou *hadst* not lived to kill a son of mine.'
> *3rd Hen. VI.* v. 6.

How 'Have' helps.—'Have' is used to make *the Perfect forms*. Followed by the past participle of another verb, 'have'

forms two tenses: 'have loved' (**present perfect**), '*had* loved' (**past perfect**). Now, as the participle 'loved' merely expresses completed action, witl ou reference to time, and as 'I have' means 'I possess' (at this moment), the union of the two comes to express perfect action likewise. 'I have written a letter' means 'I now possess a written letter'; whence it follows that the writing of the letter is an action finished, perfect, or complete. In O.E. the participle was inflected to agree with the object, this construction being primarily applied with *transitive* verbs, though afterwards extended to intransitives (§ 15), when the original formation was neglected. 'Hi hæfdon *hine* ofslægenne', 'they had *him* (a) *slain* (man)', 'they had slain him'. But the inflexion began to drop very early. In O. E., 'have', 'had', were sometimes used to express the simple past tense.

The infinitive followed by a past participle forms a **perfect infinitive active**: '*to have* loved', '*having* loved'.

The present or imperfect participle 'having', joined to the past participle of a verb, yields a **perfect participle active**: '*having* loved', '*having* written'.

Have + Been.—The perfect forms of 'be', made up by the help of 'have', are also joined to both present and past participles. Followed by a present or imperfect participle, 'have, had, having, &c., been' form what have been called **continuous tenses,** or tenses of *continued action*: 'I *have been* writing', 'to *have been* writing'. These are simply *progressive perfect* tenses; they stand to the perfect in much the same relation as the so-called 'progressive' stand in to the 'indefinite' tenses. (§ 40).

The same combinations with the past participle make the **perfect forms of the passive**: 'I *have been* loved', 'I *had been* loved', '*having been* loved'.

'Have' followed by the gerund expresses *obligation*: 'I have to write' = 'I *am obliged* to write', 'I *must* write'. 'I *had* to write' expresses past compulsion or pressure. With this combination compare the formation of the French future: *aimer-ai* = 'to love + have I'.

17. Shall and Will.

Shall.

Present Tense.

Sing.	1. Shall		*Plur.*	1. Shall
	2. Shalt			2. Shall
	3. Shall.			3. Shall.

Past Tense.

Sing.		*Plur.*	
1. Should		1. Should	
2. Shouldst		2. Should	
3. Should.		3. Should.	

Will.

Present Tense.

Sing.		*Plur.*	
1. Will		1. Will	
2. Wilt		2. Will	
3. Will.		3. Will.	

Past Tense.

Sing.		*Plur.*	
1. Would		1. Would	
2. Wouldst		2. Would	
3. Would.		3. Would.	

The negative *won't* is for ' *wol* not ', an old form. ' Nill ' (' will you, *nill* you '), O. E. *nyllan* = *ne will* (O. E. *ne willan*) = ' will not '.

18. Shall and **Will** are employed to form **the future tenses** in English: ' I *shall* go ', ' he *will* go '.

In O. E. there was no special inflexion for the future, and the present was usually employed instead. ' Ga ge on mín e wingeard, and ic *sylle* eow thæt riht bith ', ' go into my vineyard, and I *give* (= *shall give*) you what is right ': (quoted by Sweet). ' Shall ' and ' will ' are occasionally used, but seldom as pure future auxiliaries.

19. Shall originally means **debt, obligation.** Chaucer says ' that faith I *shall* (I owe) to God '. ' He *shall* suffer ', is ' he *owes* to suffer ', ' he *is about* to suffer '.

Grimm traces ' shall ' (O.E. *sceal*, Goth. *skal*) to the past tense of a present meaning ' I kill '. Thus ' I *shall* ' is ' I killed ', or ' I have killed ', and therefore ' I have to pay the legal fine '; hence, ' I am in debt, or under obligation ', ' I must '.

20. Will, on the other hand, means **intention or resolution, on the part of the agent,** he being free to do as he pleases in the matter. ' I *will* go ', means that *it is in my option* to go or not to go, and that I decide for going.

Thus there is a radical contrast of situation implied in the two words, namely, the difference between *being under* **outward** *control, coercion, compulsion, influence, or pressure* and *being free to follow* **one's own** *feelings and wishes.* ' I *shall* not be at home ' is as much as to say that *circumstances compel me* to be absent ; ' I *will* not be at home ' implies that neither any other person's will nor any external compulsion whatsoever prevents me, but that *it is my own free will and pleasure* to be absent.

This great opposition of meaning determines the appropriate employment of the two words. The following phrases are wrong, although in common use by Scotchmen and Irishmen : —' I *will* be obliged to you ', ' I *will* be under the necessity ', ' we *will* be at a loss ', ' we *will* be compelled ', ' I *will* be much gratified '. As the very nature of these expressions supposes obligation, or some influence from without, the use of ' will ', which expresses the absence of all external pressure, is a contradiction ; we ought to say, ' I *shall* be obliged ', ' I *shall* be under the necessity ', ' I *shall* be much gratified ', &c. ' Shall ' is not necessarily limited to compulsion in the *painful* sense : if outward events (and not inward determinations) concur to impart benefits to an individual, the expression is ' shall ': ' I *shall* be a great gainer ', ' I *shall* be delightfully placed '.

21. Shall is the future auxiliary of the first person ; will, of the second and third persons.

Through the use of ' shall ', the bare fact of futurity is signified by the word expressing the compulsion of events. But it was natural that this application of ' shall ' should come to be restricted to the first person ; ' will ', the sign of self-determining choice, appearing to be more proper for persons other than the speaker. Hence we say ' *I shall* come ', to make known the future coming of the speaker, but not, ' *you shall* come ', ' *he shall* come ' ; the auxiliary for these persons is considerably changed to ' you *will* come ', ' he *will* come ', when simple futurity is meant. The conjugation of the future tense of the verb is, therefore, as follows :—

Sing.	1.	*Shall* come	*Plur.* 1.	*Shall* come
	2.	*Wilt* come	2.	*Will* come
	3.	*Will* come.	3.	*Will* come.

22. The explanation of this distribution of the auxiliaries is found in considerations of courtesy or politeness.

When a person says ' *I shall* come ', he uses a phrase which

originally means that he is to be under external influence or compulsion, and he so far speaks humbly of himself, a thing quite becoming. But the case is altered when, addressing a second person, we say ' *you shall* come '; this is equal to saying, ' the power of external events will leave you no choice but to come '. To use this form of language to another person has seemed want of due courtesy and consideration for the feelings of others ; and accordingly we have departed from it, and adopted ' will ', which is the same as to say, ' your, or their, free will and pleasure will induce you, or them, to come '. This has been considered polite and deferential, and has become the form of futurity when persons other than ' I ' or ' we ' are concerned. Hence the correct usage is, ' *I shall* be at the gardens, and so *will you* and *James* '.*

23. When the aim is to express, not futurity, but **self-determination on the part of the speaker,** he says ' I *will* ' for the first person, and ' you *shall* ', ' he *shall* ', for the second and third.

Here the speaker's determination is the controlling power throughout ; it is ' will ' for himself, because he is the agent, but it is ' shall ' for the others, because they are acted on by him, that is, by an influence external to them. To say ' will ' in their case, would be not to exercise compulsion, but to record their own independent or free determination. Hence ' *shall* ' *is the highest form of command and authority* : ' thou *shalt* not kill '. It is the form for imposing legal obligations and penalties in our English Acts of Parliament †. But, as remarked above, not the hand of power and painful constraint simply, but also influence for good, has to be expressed in the same way. ' He *shall* be *blessed* in all that belongs to him ', is a correct expression if it be implied that the instrumentality is not his own wishing and acting, but a controlling influence beyond. Hence the common rule that ' shall ' in the second and third persons commands, threatens, and *promises.*

24. In what is called **indirect speech, ' shall '** **expresses futurity in all the persons.**

* In addressing the Deity, the very nature of the subject excludes the idea of constraint : ' thou *shalt* endure, and thy years *shall* not change '.

† When a superior is giving directions to a subordinate, he sometimes uses, as a courtesy form, ' you *will* ' : ' you *will* see that due precautions are taken '. It is assumed that the subordinate is perfectly disposed to do his duty, and the language of authority is softened down to the form of prediction, or futurity. This is another example of the influence of considerations of courtesy in these constructions.

This apparent exception illustrates the rule ; for in that case the reason for changing from 'shall' to 'will' no longer exists. 'You say you *shall* write', 'he says he *shall* write', are no breach of courtesy, because the saying is put into the mouth of the person that performs the action. These are the exact parallels of 'I shall write' ; *the speaker speaks only for himself.* The following expressions are correct : 'he promises that his part *shall* be fulfilled' ; 'we pledge ourselves that our future actions *shall* (not 'will') be in accordance with our vows'.

If, on the other hand, **determination** on the part of the subject is expressed, **'will' is used in all the persons** : 'I *will* write', 'you say you *will* write', 'he says he *will* write'.

25. Whenever **the action of external events** comes into play, the speaker, using the first person, must pass from 'will' to '**shall**'.

'If I draw a catgut, or any other cord, to a great length between my fingers, I *will* make it smaller than before' (Goldsmith). The proper word here is 'shall', because the making it smaller does not depend immediately upon the speaker's will, but grows out of the previous action. A similar consideration dictates the use of 'shall' when the speaker has once pledged himself to a certain course, and is merely following out that pledge. An author states at the outset the plan of his work, and as he proceeds with the execution of that plan, he says, 'I *shall* next consider'. The following may be explained on this principle : 'we *shall* now proceed to mention some of the most famous' ; 'I *will* begin with a passage of considerable beauty'. The first expression is justifiable, as being a continu- ation or following up of the author's plan, to which he had committed himself ; the other indicates a new start, and he therefore reverts to the auxiliary of free will. 'I will' may be softened into 'I shall', even in cases of determination, to give less of the appearance of egotism : the speaker pretending, as it were, that he is the humble instrument of events in what he is about to do ; but the substitution of 'I will' for 'I shall' is always an error.

26. In Interrogative Sentences, the second person takes the place of the first ; but it is only for **determination on the part of the person in- terrogated** that *the three persons* can be *all* made use of : '*will you* go?' '*shall I* go?' '*shall he* go?' The corresponding expressions in the case of **mere**

futurity exist *only for two persons:* '*shall you* go ?' '*will he* go ?' '*will it* appear soon ?'

The meanings of the first form are: '*is it your will* to go' (will you) ? '*is it your will* that *I* go' (shall I) ? '*is it your will* that *he* go' (shall he) ? *The second person is appealed to as the source of will and authority,* and corresponds to the first person in affirmatory speech.

But we cannot, for simple inquiry as to the future, reverse the forms throughout thus : '*shall you* go ?' '*will I* go ?' '*will he* go ?' By attending to the original meaning of the auxiliaries we shall be able to comprehend the force of these several interrogatories.

The first, '*shall you* go ?' on a strict interpretation, may be supposed to mean, 'will events permit or require you to go ?' whence it seems the appropriate interrogative for mere futurity. When we are in total ignorance of the determining circumstances, or are unable to say whether events or the person's own will are to decide the point, we may be expected to say 'shall you ?' This form is not objected to on the ground of representing the person addressed as at the mercy of outward circumstances ; it is a well established English usage. The form '*will you*' is less seldom employed, although admissible ; it seems to suppose that the person's mind is not yet made up. We must regard it as suitable to the case where we appeal to another person, to state what his determination is in a case depending on him. But 'shall you ?' is more generally applicable.

The form '*will I* ?' is an absurdity, as the speaker asks the other party what he himself alone can know, namely, his own will and determination. There is no situation where this expression is admissible ; unless we except the peculiar case where the speaker repeats with the first personal pronoun a question as to his own intentions, or answers it by another question similarly formed. '*Will* you be there ?' '*Will I* be there ? *Will I* be alive ? Certainly.' 'Will I ?' for 'Shall I ?' is a common Scotticism.

'*Will he* ?' would naturally mean '*is it his will* to do so and so ?' and this is probably in accordance with usage. When we are in doubt as to how a person will act in matters within his own power, we say 'but will he ?' When we are inquiring into mere futurity, however, we must still use the same form in preference to 'shall he ?' which puts the case as depending upon the person addressed. We must say, '*will he* be there ?' '*will it* be fine ?' '*will* there be a large assembly ?' all intending to mean futurity. We often prefer forms different from either

for the simple future : 'is he to be there ?' 'do you expect him there ?' 'is the meeting to take place ?'

There is a Scotticism committed in responding to the interrogative 'will you ?' It consists in saying 'I shall', for 'I will'. 'I shall' is objectionable, as indicating, not hearty goodwill and concurrence to do the thing required, but a mere acquiesence in the compulsion of circumstances. It is a still more vulgar error to say '*will* that be all you want ?' for '*is* that all you want ?'

Further Examples of 'Shall' and 'Will'.—The distinction of the two words is illustrated by the supposed exclamation of an Irishman on falling into the water ; 'I *will* be drowned, and nobody *shall* help me'. While intending to express his apprehensions and to invoke help, he in reality declares with emphasis that it is his determination to drown himself, and to resist any one that would rescue him. The following passages discriminate the two auxiliaries with precision : 'The spirit of my father grows strong in me, and I *will* no longer endure it'. . . . 'He that escapes me without some broken limb *shall* acquit him well (ironical *promise*)' . . . 'Charles, I thank thee for thy love to me, which thou *shalt* find I *will* most kindly requite.' . . . 'Truly, when he dies, thou *shalt* be his heir, for what he hath taken away from thy father perforce, I *will* render thee again in affection ; by mine honour, I *will*' (Shaks., *As you like it*, i.).

When Tennyson makes Œnone say 'I *will* not die alone', he intimates that she is determined that others shall die with her. 'I *shall* not die alone' means that 'the course of fate will overwhelm other persons along with me'.

In the Litany,—'Glory be to the Father—as it was in the beginning, is now, and ever *shall* be',—the 'shall' means emphatically that a power has ordained this to be.

Lindley Murray considers the translation of the concluding verse of the 23rd Psalm to be incorrectly rendered. 'Surely goodness and mercy *shall* follow me all the days of my life, and I *will* dwell in the house of the Lord for ever' ; he would make it '*will* follow' and '*shall* dwell'. But this is a question of meaning. As now rendered, the first clause is a promise, 'goodness and mercy *are ordained* to follow me', which is, not improbably the true meaning. The second clause would imply, 'it is *my determination and preference* to dwell in the house of the Lord' ; but if the meaning be, 'I am *destined* to have bestowed upon me a dwelling in the house of the Lord', the suitable auxiliary is 'shall'.

In dependent clauses the construction is somewhat complicated. In a sentence with two co-ordinate parts, like the

following, the usage is plain : ' I *will* be there at six o'clock, when it *will* be light ' ; this means, ' I resolve to be there at six, and at that time it will be light '. But if the second clause is a condition of the first, the case is altered : ' I will be there when it *shall* be light ' ; ' when ' here stands for ' whenever ', and the fact of its being light is no longer an assertion of futurity, but of **eventuality** ; in the event of its being light, or when the course of things brings about that circumstance. In the sentence, ' how heavy their punishment will be who *will* at any time resist ', there is a meaning distinct from what would have been given by ' who *shall* at any time resist '. The first supposes a *definite* case of resistance ; there are actual persons resolved upon resisting, and their punishment will be heavy. The second is *a mere supposition or contingency* : ' if it should arise that any persons are found to resist '. (Sir F. Head, on *Shall* and *Will*).

The following examples are given in Connon's Grammar as incorrect, but they may all be defended : ' An extract from Mr. Hallam *shall* close the present section and introduce the next.' ' Here, then, the present introductory course of lectures *shall* close.' ' Theocritus, in an epigram, which *shall* be cited in the next note, dedicates myrtles to Apollo.' These may all be interpreted as promises or pledges on the part of the authors to do a certain thing, and for this the expression in the third person is ' shall '. ' I hereby give assurance that the present course *shall* close ', is perfectly consistent with the meaning of ' shall '. ' Will ' might have been used in those cases, and then we should have interpreted the speaker as expressing only the mere fact of futurity. The following is more questionable : ' Now, in an inquiry into the credibility of history, the first question which we *will* consider is '. Here ' will ' is not absolutely wrong, but ' shall ' would have been preferable, because the writer is supposed to be committed by his subject to a certain course. This is one of the doubtful situations where either usage can be justified.

' I *will* (my resolution) give them an everlasting name, that *shall* (my controlling power) not be cut off.'

' Every place whereon the soles of your feet *shall* (eventuality) tread *shall* (promise of the speaker, who controls the event) be yours.'

' Nay, but we *will* (our resolution) have a king over us.'

' Accidents *will* happen ' : a personification of accidents, as if they were *determined* to happen, and consequently do happen. This form has largely the force of the present indefinite tense.

(Additional illustrations may be found in the *Companion to the Higher Grammar*, pp. 179-184.)

27. Would and **should** follow the rules of 'shall' and 'will' when employed in parallel circumstances: 'I *should*', 'you *would*', 'he *would*', express **contingent futurity**; 'I *would*', 'you *would*', 'he *would*', signify the **past or recorded determination of the subject**; 'I *should*', 'you *should*', 'he *should*', express that **the subject is controlled by some other power**.

As a past future is a contradiction, the form 'I should' is taken to express *a future that is doubtful, conditional, or merely supposed*. If we were discussing an arrangement that is as yet undetermined one way or other, it would be admissible to say '*I should* take part', '*you would*', '*they would*'. When actually fixed and settled, the language becomes 'I shall', 'you will', 'they will'. This mode of converting future verbs into forms for contingency is not uncommon. The French modify 'irai' (I shall go) by a slight addition into 'irais' (I should go), called the conditional mood.

The same errors are committed with 'would' and 'should' as with 'shall' and 'will'. When one is under influence from without, 'I would' is improper; it is wrong to say 'I *would* be surprised', 'I *would* be obliged', 'I *would* be under the necessity', 'I *would* be delighted'; in none of these cases is the effect dependent on the speaker's will. The correct expression is, 'I *should* be surprised', &c.

As regards determination, 'would' exactly tallies with 'will'. It expresses *past, or recorded determination*. 'I *would* go' is a record of my resolution on some past occasion. So 'you *would* go', 'they *would* go', in like manner record that 'you' or 'they' had in a certain past instance the resolution to go.

But when the determination proceeds from a power external to the subject, 'should' comes in as a matter of course: 'I said *you* and *they should* go' = 'it was *my* will that *you* were to go'.

28. When past time is not involved, 'I *would*' is **contingent determination**; 'I *should*' means **duty, obligation, or being under the influence of events.** 'I *would* do it if I were you'; 'I *should* do it' (it is my duty to do it). So with 'you *should*', 'they *should*', obligation is implied.

29. The Future Subjunctive is 'I *should*',

'thou *should*', 'he *should*,' &c. : 'if I, you, he, *should* find what you wish '.

In dependent statements there are necessarily two clauses. The one states what is conditional, the other states the condition, and is introduced by one of the conjunctions of condition, 'if', 'though', 'unless,' &c. The condition is in the subjunctive mood ; the conditioned statement is variously expressed. ' If he *should* fail, I should have to make it good,' or, 'I shall have to make it good ;' or 'I will', or 'would, make it good '.

The following is an error (if a mere assumption with regard to the future be intended, without any sense of wish or desire): 'if I *would* declare them, and speak of them, they are more than can be numbered '. In the sentence, 'if I *should* declare them, and speak of them, they *should* be more than I am able to express', the first is right, the second is wrong, as being a case of mere contingent futurity, without obligation. The sense of 'should' is, 'they *ought* to be more than I am able to express'.

Further examples of ' Would' and 'Should'.—' Were he more diligent, he *would* be more successful', not 'should '. 'Were he to do such a thing in England, he *would* be hanged ', expresses a contingent future consequence; but ' *should* be hanged ' means that he would deserve to be hanged, owing to some aggravation connected with the performance of the act in England. 'This man was taken of the Jews, and *should* have been killed of them ' ; this conveys to our ears the meaning that he *ought* to have been killed.—(Harrison).

It is to be remarked that ' should ' and 'would ' are, in many instances, softened forms of ' shall ' and 'will '. ' I *should* be very much surprised ' may refer to an actual future, and is an indirect and elliptical way of saying ' I *shall* be very much surprised '. Both ' it *should* seem' and 'it *would* seem ' are modestly used for ' it seems'. In such a sentence as the following also, ' should ' is used as an expression of diffidence :— ' I have so much confidence in the sagacity of the Romans within the somewhat narrow sphere of their thoughts, that I *should* be cautious in criticising their military and diplomatic administration ' ; that is, I am disposed to be cautious, I prefer to be cautious. If the writer had been more confident and dogmatic, he would have used an indicative form, ' I am ' or ' shall be cautious '. In Shakspeare we have ' What *should* be in that Cæsar ?' for ' what is there ?' In other words, ' I should be glad to know, I wonder what there is in that Cæsar ?'

(For additional illustrations, see the *Companion to the Higher Grammar*, pp. 185-197.)

30. In Interrogation, '*would* you?' '*should* I?' '*should* he?' inquire what is the determination of of the person addressed. '*Should* you?' is contingent future (except when for '*ought* you?'); '*would* I?' is wholly inadmissible. '*Would he?*' asks information as to the probable intentions of the person spoken of: 'do you think he would go?'

These are in exact accordance with the usage of 'will' and 'shall' in interrogation.

31. To Do.

Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Past Participle.
Do.	Did.	Done.

Present Tense.—I do; thou doest, *or* dost; he does, doeth, *or* doth; we, you, they do.

Past Tense.—I did, thou didst, he, &c., did.

Imperfect Participle.—Doing.

'Do' is a **tense auxiliary** in such cases as—'thou *dost* prefer (=preferrest) above all temples the upright heart and pure', 'as if they *did* rejoice (=rejoiced) o'er a young earthquake's birth'; and especially in inversions : 'not for those . . . *do* I repent or change'; 'never *did* any man labour more zealously'.

Thus, it is the form of **interrogation** (an inversion of order) : '*do* you write?' '*Did* ye not hear it?'

It is also the **negative** form : 'you *do* not write'; 'I *did* not hear it'. This must be considered the usual and proper form of negation. 'You write *not*', 'I heard it *not*', were common formerly, but now occur only in poetry, and in some rare instances where they are thought to be emphatic. 'I know *not*' should be 'I *do not* know'. 'Some believed, and some believed *not*', in modern rendering is—'Some believed, and some *did not* (believe)'.

Besides these uses as an auxiliary of tense, 'do' makes the **emphatic** form of the verb; as 'I *do* love', 'he *did* write'. 'Perdition catch my soul, but I *do* love thee.'

'Do' has a form peculiar to itself; it can be put as a **substitute** for other verbs (except 'be') : 'he speaks as well as you *do*' (for 'speak') : 'he spoke better than you could have *done* (spoken)'; 'he loves not plays, as thou *dost*'. This corresponds with the power of the pronoun to act as a substitute for the noun, and we might therefore call '*do*' the *pro-verb*.

32. May and Can.

May.

Present Tense.

Sing.		*Plur.*	
1.	May	1.	May
2.	May(e)st	2.	May
3.	May.	3.	May.

Past Tense.

Sing.		*Plur.*	
1.	Might	1.	Might
2.	Might(e)st	2.	Might
3.	Might.	3.	Might.

'May', O.E. *mæg*, later *mæi*. 'Might', O.E. *meahte, mihte*. The infin. was *magan* or *mugan*, and the meaning in O.E. was 'can', 'be able'.

Can.

Present Tense.

Sing.		*Plur.*	
1.	Can	1.	Can
2.	Canst	2.	Can
3.	Can.	3.	Can.

Past Tense.

Sing.		*Plur.*	
1.	Could	1.	Could
2.	Couldst	2.	Could
3.	Could.	3.	Could.

'Can' originally = 'know'; hence 'am able'. The infin. was 'cunnan'.

'Could', O.E. *cuthe* (Goth. *kuntha*), *couthe, coude*, has been assimilated in spelling to 'should' and 'would', by the intrusion of *l*.

The imperfect participle remains in 'cunning'; literally 'knowing'. The past participle *cuth*, lit. 'known', remains in 'uncouth' (O.E. *uncuth*), originally = 'unknown', hence 'strange', 'unshapely', 'awkward'.

'May' and 'Can' are the verbs employed to make the so-called potential mood. Their discrimination is important, as errors are sometimes committed in using them.

33. May now expresses **permission; Can, power.** 'I *may* go' is 'I *am permitted* to go'; 'I *can* walk', 'I *am* physically *able* to walk'; 'I *can* solve that question', 'I have the ability or skill requisite to solve that question'.

This difference somewhat resembles the distinction of 'shall' and 'will'. It is the contrast between the operation of a power without or above, and a power inhering in the individual. In giving or asking permission we must use 'may': 'you *may* go', '*may* I come?' The Scotch erroneously use 'can' for this meaning. In giving permission they often say 'you *can* go'; and in asking permission, '*can* I see it?' A porter at a gate, on being applied to for liberty to enter, will say 'I *cannot*', when he means that he is forbidden by his instructions, and is not free to admit any one: the real meaning of 'I cannot' would be, that he is physically unable to open the gate. '*Can* I cross the field?' means 'is there a way?' '*may* I cross the field?' is 'am I allowed to cross? is there a right of way?' 'I *cannot* lift that weight', 'I *cannot* play the flute', 'I *cannot* see the hills', all imply incapability on the part of the individual. 'He *may* not' would mean that, though he may have the capability to do these things, he is forbidden by some authority.

In Lord Chatham's celebrated utterance—'The Englishman's house is his castle; every wind may enter it, but the king *cannot, the king dare not enter*'—'cannot' is used for 'may not' by a figure of speech; so secure is the Englishman in this inviolability of his house, that the king is as it were physically unable to pass his threshold.

34. May also means **possibility or concession**; as 'he *may* come yet'; 'that *may* be so, but I doubt it'; 'you *may* recover your loss'.

This is merely a peculiar case of the principal meaning: it is, as it were, permission in the midst of difficulties.

In the phrase 'he hastens that he *may* be in time', we have an example of another application of the word, still under the original idea; 'that it *be in his power*—that he *be able* to be in time'.

35. Placed before its subject, **may** expresses a **wish:** '*may* you be happy'.

There is here a shortening, or ellipsis, of a roundabout expression: 'it is my wish that *you may be happy*, or that you *be able* to be happy'.

36. Could, besides being the past of **'can'** ('he *could* not go yesterday'), expresses **present power conditionally**; 'he *could* go to-day if he would'.

Might expresses **past permission as reported**

in the present ; ' he told me that I *might* go '.
More rarely it expresses **past permission simply :**
' I *might* not go ', for ' I *was* not *allowed* to go '.

37. Must is invariable for tense, number, person.

The O. E. present was *mot ;* past, *moste.* 'Must' now stands
for present as well as for past. The inflexions are all gone.

' Mot ' meant ' may ', ' can ', ' be allowed ', ' have opportunity '.
' Not so happy as *mote* happy be ' (Spenser, *Faery Queene,* I. ix.):
' mote ' = ' might ', or ' could '. 'Must' now means *necessity,*
in various forms. (1) Compulsion from without : ' he *must*
work '. (2) Uncontrollable desire, amounting almost to physical
necessity : ' he *must* have society '. (3) Certainty, or necessary
inference, something that we can count on : ' it *must* be so ;
Plato, thou reasonest well '.

38. Ought signifies moral obligation, duty :
' you *ought* to go ' is ' *it is your duty* to go '.

When *past* time is to be expressed ' ought ' is joined to a
perfect infinitive : ' you *ought* to *have gone* ', is ' *it was your
duty* to go '.

' Ought ', though now used as a present, is really the past
tense of the verb ' owe ', in its old sense of ' have ', ' possess '.
Compare ' that sweet sleep which thou *owedst* (=hadst) yester-
day ' (Shak., *Oth.* iii. 3) ; ' the disposition that I *owe* (= have,
possess ') (Shak., *Macb.* iii. 4.). Spenser uses ' ought ' =
' owned ', ' possessed '. Thus, ' you *ought* to go ' may be com-
pared with ' you *have* to go '.

' Owe ' = ' to be in debt ', is a regular weak verb, with past
tense and past part., ' owed '.

39. Go.

Pres. Tense.—I go, thou goest, he goes ; we, &c., go.

Past Tense.—I went, thou wentest, he, &c., went.

Past Participle.—Gone.

By employing the imperfect participle of this verb as an
auxiliary, we obtain a series of forms for expressing an *intention*
about to be executed ; as ' I am *going* to write ', ' I have been
going to write ', ' I was *going* to write ', ' I had been *going* to
write ', ' I shall be *going* to write ', ' I shall have been *going* to
write,' &c. Almost the very same meaning is stated by
' about ': ' I am *about* to write '.

40. The following is a **Complete Scheme of the Verb** as made up by means of the various auxiliaries:—

Conjugation of an Active Verb.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

Indefinite.—I write, thou writest, he writes ; we, you, they—write.

Progressive.—I am, thou art, he is, we, you, they are—writing.

Perfect.—I have, thou hast, &c.—written.

Continuous.—I have, thou hast, &c.—been writing.

Past.

Indefinite.—I wrote, thou wrotest, he, we, you, they—wrote.

Progressive.—I was, thou wast, he was, we, you, they were—writing.

Perfect.—I had, thou hadst, &c.—written.

Continuous.—I had, thou hadst, &c.—been writing.

Future.

Indefinite.—I shall, thou wilt, he will, we shall, you will, they will—write.

Progressive.—I shall, thou wilt, he will, we shall, you will, they will—be writing.

Perfect.—I shall, thou wilt, he will, &c.—have written.

Continuous.—I shall, thou wilt, he will, &c.—have been writing.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.

Indefinite.—(If) I, thou, he, we, you, they—write.

Progressive.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—be writing.

Perfect.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—have written.

Continuous.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—have been writing.

Past.

Indefinite.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—wrote.

Progressive.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—were writing.

Perfect.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—had written.

Continuous.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—had been writing.

Future.

Indefinite.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—should write.

Progressive.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—should be writing.

Perfect.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—should have written.

Continuous.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—should have been writing.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.
Present.
Write.

INFINITIVE MOOD AND GERUND.

Indefinite.—(To) write ; writing.
Progressive.—(To) be writing.
Perfect.—(To) have written.
Continuous.—(To) have been writing.

PARTICIPLES.

Indefinite.—Writing.   *Perfect.*—Having written.
Continuous.—Having been writing.

Conjugation of a Passive Verb.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present.

Indefinite.—I am, thou art, he is, &c.—loved.
Progressive.—I am, thou art, he is, &c.—being loved.
Perfect.—I have, thou hast, he has, &c.—been loved.

Past.

Indefinite.—I was, thou wast, he was, &c.—loved.
Progressive.—I was, thou wast, he was, &c.—being loved.
Perfect.—I had, thou hadst, he had, &c.—been loved.

Future.

Indefinite.—I shall, thou wilt, he will, we shall, &c.—be loved.
Perfect.—I shall, thou wilt, he will, &c.—have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present.

Indefinite.—I, thou, he, &c.—be loved.
Perfect.—I, thou, he, &c.—have been loved.

Past.

Indefinite.—I, thou, he, &c.—were loved.
Progressive.—I, thou, &c.—were being loved.
Perfect.—I had, &c.—been loved.

Future.

Indefinite.—I, thou, &c.—should be loved.
Perfect.—I, &c.—should have been loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.
Present.
Be loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD AND GERUND.

Indefinite.—(To) be loved.   *Perfect.*—(To) have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Indefinite.—Loved, or Being loved. *Perfect.*—Having been loved.

Meanings of the Moods.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

41. In Subordinate Clauses.—In a Clause expressing a condition, and introduced by a Conjunction of condition, **the Verb is sometimes,** but not always, **in the Subjunctive Mood:** 'if I *be* able ', ' if I *were* strong enough ', ' if thou *should* come '.

The subjunctive inflexions have been wholly lost. The sense that something is wanting appears to have led many writers to use indicative forms where the subjunctive might be expected. The tendency appears strongest in the case of ' wert ', which is now used as indicative (for ' wast ') only in poetical or elevated language.

The following is the rule given for the use of the subjunctive mood :

42. When in a Conditional Clause it is intended to express Doubt or Denial, use the Subjunctive Mood.* ' If I *were* sure of what you tell me, I would go.'

When the conditional clause is *affirmative* and *certain*, the verb is *indicative* : ' if that *is* the case ' (as you now tell me, and I believe) ' I can understand you '. This is equivalent to a clause of assumption, or supposition : ' that being the case ', 'inasmuch as that is the case ', &c.

As *futurity* is by its nature uncertain, the subjunctive is extensively used for **future conditionality** : ' if it *rain*, we shall not be able to go ' ; ' if I *be* well ' ; ' if he *come* shortly ' ; ' if thou *return* at all in peace ' ; ' though he *slay* me, yet will I trust in him '. These events are all in the uncertain future, and are put in the subjunctive.†

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* Dr. Angus on the English Tongue, art. 527.
† In the following passages, the indicative mood would be more suit-able than the subjunctive : ' If thou *be* the Son of God, command that

A future result or consequence is expressed by the subjunctive in such instances as these : ' I will wait till he *return* '; ' no fear lest dinner *cool* '; ' thou shalt stone him with stones, that he *die* '; ' take heed lest at any time your hearts *be* overcharged with surfeiting '.

Uncertainty as to a past event may arise from our own ignorance, in which case the subjunctive is properly employed, and serves the useful purpose of distinguishing our ignorance from our knowledge. ' If any of my readers *has* looked with so little attention upon the world around him ' ; this would mean—' as I know that they have '. The meaning intended is probably—' as I do not know whether they have or not ', and therefore the subjunctive ' have ' is preferable. ' If ignorance *is* bliss ', which I (ironically) admit. Had Pope been speaking seriously, he would have said ' if ignorance *be* bliss ', he himself dissenting from the proposition.

A wish contrary to the fact takes the subjunctive : ' I wish he *were* here ' (which he is not).

An intention not yet carried out is also subjunctive : ' the sentence is that you *be* imprisoned '.

The only correct form of the future subjunctive is—' if I *should* '. We may say ' I do not know whether or not I *shall* come ' ; but ' if I shall come ', expressing a condition, is not an English construction ' If he will ' has a real meaning, as being the present subjunctive of the verb ' will ' : ' if he be willing ', ' if he have the will '. It is in accordance with good usage to express a future subjunctive meaning by a present tense ; but in that case the form must be strictly subjunctive, and not indicative. ' If any member *absents* himself, he shall forfeit a penny for the use of the club ' ; this ought to be either ' absent ', or ' should absent '. ' If thou *neglectest*, or *doest* unwillingly, what I command thee, I will rack thee with old cramps ' ; better, ' if thou *neglect*, or *do* unwillingly ', or ' if thou should neglect '. The indicative would be justified by the speaker's belief that the supposition is sure to turn out to be the fact.

these stones be made bread ' ; ' if thou *be* the Son of God, come down from the cross '. For although the address was not sincere on the part of the speakers, they really meant to make the supposition, or to grant that he was the Son of God ; ' seeing that thou *art* the Son of God '. Likewise in the following : ' Now if Christ be preached, that He rose from the dead, how say some among you that there is no resurrection from the dead ?' The meaning is ' seeing now that Christ *is* preached '. In the continuation, the conditional clauses are of a different character, and ' be ' is appropriate : ' But if there *be* no resurrection from the dead, then is Christ not risen. And if Christ *be* not risen, then is our preaching vain, and your faith is also vain '. Again, ' if thou *bring* thy gift to the altar, and there remember*est*, &c.' Consistency and correctness require ' remember '.—Harrison on the English Language, p. 257.

43. The Past Subjunctive may imply **denial;** as 'if the book *were* in the library (as it is not), it should be at your service'.

'If the book *be* in the library', means, 'I do not know whether it be or not'. We have thus the power of discriminating *three* different suppositions. 'If the book *is* in the library' (as I know it is); 'if it *be*' (I am uncertain); 'if it *were*' (as I know it is not). So, 'if it rains', 'if it rain', 'if it rained'. 'Nay, and the villains march wide between the legs, as if they *had* gyves on', implying that they had not.

The same power of the past tense is exemplified in 'if I *could*, I would', which means, 'I cannot'; whereas, 'if I can, I will', means 'I do not know'.

44. The Past Subjunctive may be expressed by an **inversion:** '*had* I the power', '*were* I as I have been'.

45. In Principal Clauses.—The principal clause in a conditional statement also takes the Subjunctive form when it refers to what is future and contingent, and when it refers to what is past and uncertain, or denied. 'If he should try, he *would* succeed;' 'if I had seen him, I *should* have asked him'.

The usual forms of the subjunctive in the principal clause, are 'would', 'should', 'would have', 'should have'; and it is to be noted that in this application the second persons take the inflexional ending of the indicative: 'shouldst', 'wouldst'.

> 'If 'twere done, when 'tis done, then '*twere* (would be) well
> It *were* (should be) done quickly.'

The English idiom appears sometimes to permit the use of an indicative where we should expect a subjunctive form. 'Many acts, that *had* been otherwise blameable, were employed'; 'I *had* fainted, unless I had believed', &c.

> 'Which else *lie* furled and shrouded in the soul.'

In 'else' there is implied a conditional clause that would suit 'lie'; or the present may be regarded as a more vivid form of expression. 'Had' may be indicative; just as we sometimes find pluperfect indicative for pluperfect subjunctive in the same circumstances in Latin. We may refer it to the general tendency, as already seen in the uses of 'could', 'would', 'should', &c., to express conditionality by a past tense; or

the indicative may be used as a more direct and vivid mode. 'Had' may be subjunctive; 'I *had* fainted' is, in construction, analogous to 'I *should* have fainted'; the word for futurity, 'shall', not being necessary to the sense, is withdrawn, and its past inflexion transferred to 'have'. Compare Germ. *würde haben* and *hätte.*

THE INFINITIVE.

46. The perfect form of the infinitive, 'to have written', is often **erroneously used** for the simple or indefinite form, 'to write'.

'I intended *to have written*' should be 'I intended *to write*'. The perfect infinitive is properly used only when the action is completed previous to the date of the governing verb; as 'I am glad *to have met* you'.

'It is' should be followed by the infinitive with 'to', and not by the infinitive in 'ing'. 'It is easy *distinguishing*' ought to be 'it is easy *to distinguish*'.

Meanings of the Tenses.

THE PRESENT INDEFINITE.

47. The principal use of the Present Indefinite is to express **what is true at all times:** 'the sun *gives* light'; 'twice two *is* four'; 'man *is* mortal'; 'conscience *makes* cowards of us all'.

Hence a more suitable name would be the *Universal* tense. It expresses present time only as representing all time. The permanent arrangements and laws of nature, the peculiarities, habits, and propensities of living beings, and whatever is constant, regular, and uniform, have to be represented by the present indefinite.

'The mountains *look* on Marathon,
And Marathon *looks* on the sea.'

So in expressing men's characters and habitual occupations; as 'he *works* hard'; 'he *superintends* the harbour'; 'he *sings* a good song'; 'he *has* a good name'.

48. It is only **by a special Adverb,** or by the **context,** that we can confine this tense to mean **a present act solely:** 'I *now charge* this jar'; '*at present* I *do* duty for another person'; '*now tread* we a measure, said young Lochinvar'.

Frequently we know from the context that the affirmation is for the present only. When any one says 'the door *is* open', we understand that it is not always open, but is so at present. 'The wind *blows* hard', 'we *are* late', 'the stranger *speaks* to you', 'Mr. Speaker *is* in the chair', are declarations known from the circumstances to be strictly present, as opposed to past and future.

49. This Tense has sometimes **a future meaning**; as 'Duncan *comes* here *to-night*'; 'I *go* to my father'.

It has already been remarked that the present was the usual expression of future time in O. E., there being no future inflexion.

In the first example above, the futurity is definitely expressed by the adverb 'to-night'. In the second example, the meaning of the verb points to the future; the action 'I go' is a continuing action.

Also in such a phrase as 'how *is* the government to be carried on?' futurity is involved in the gerund form 'to be carried on'.

We have seen that a future subjunctive is expressed by a present tense.

There is a rhetorical employment of the tense known as the *historic* present. This consists in describing past events as if the narrator saw them passing before his eyes:

> 'Fierce as he *moves*, his silver shafts *resound*.'

THE PRESENT PROGRESSIVE, IMPERFECT, OR INCOMPLETE.

50. The **Progressive** form, 'I am writing', expresses the **continuance of the action over some time.** It is, moreover, *a true or strict present tense.*

This peculiarly English form enables us both to confine an action or a fact to the present, instead of extending it over all time, and to intimate that the agent is now engrossed, and is barred from other occupation. Even when the indefinite tense is limited by the context to a present operation, it does not mean the same as the progressive. 'He writes' merely states the *action* that he is engaged in, and implies that he does not read, or walk, or talk, or sit idle. 'He is writing' indicates that he is now fully occupied, and is not available for any other work. Hence, in describing immediate occupation, this tense is used: 'he *is balancing* his books'; 'he *is revising* his mathematics'; 'he *is pursuing* his investigations'; 'the boys *are playing*'.

THE PAST TENSES.

51. The Past Indefinite states **something that was formerly true, but is no longer so:** 'at Athens the poets *sang*, and the sages *taught*'; 'there my young footsteps in infancy *wandered*'; 'he *died*, no one *knew* how'.

The very nature of this tense implies limitation as compared with the present. It may indicate various degrees of extent of time. 'In the geological ages, the air *had* more carbon', may apply to a period of millions of years; it is a law of nature applicable to a period of great duration, but now passed. Or it may denote a single act of the least possible extent of time: 'the lightning *flashed*', 'the tree *was shivered*'. The tense does not indicate how far back in the past the event took place.

52. The Past Progressive, like the Present, affirms **continuance:** 'I *was musing*'; 'he *was speaking*'; 'the sun *was shining*'.

The progressive tenses, both present and past, are **often erroneously used for the indefinite.** When the object is merely to specify an action, and not to point out the fact of its continuing for some time, the indefinite forms are to be used: 'I *walk*'; 'he *rides*'; 'you *go* in the boat'; 'I *read*'; 'he *sketched*'; 'they *stood* by'. In all these expressions nothing further is intended than to assign to each party concerned their several actions: it is not meant to say whether the actions are of longer or shorter continuance. But, 'I *am walking*', 'I *was riding*', 'they *were gazing* at the scene', signify that the action lasted for some time, and constituted the occupation of the persons concerned. When, therefore, without wishing to signify continuance or occupation, we employ a progressive tense, we violate the best English usage. The expressions, 'the master *is calling* you', 'he *is speaking* to you', '*were* you *ringing*?' 'I *was supposing*', 'he *is* not *intending*', are Scotticisms for 'the master *calls*', 'he *speaks* to you', '*did* you *ring*?' 'I *supposed*', 'he *does* not *intend*'. 'I *talked* yesterday with a foreigner', 'I *saw* in the papers', 'I *heard* in the morning', are more in accordance with idiom than would be the progressive form in those instances, if we suppose no stress laid on the continuance of the action. 'He *leaves* town to-morrow', is better than 'he *is leaving* town to-morrow'. 'He is leaving for India', may be justified on the ground that he is to be occupied for some time with the preparations implied in so distant a migration.

THE PERFECT TENSES.

53. The Present Perfect expresses (1) **an action just finished, (2) an action done in a space of time not yet exhausted, (3) something whose consequences still remain.** (1.) ' I *have sent* the letter '; ' the messenger *has come* '. (2.) ' It *has rained* all the week (up to this time) '; ' we *have seen* great events this year '. (3.) ' I *have been* a great sinner '; meaning I was so in my youth, and now bear the consequences.

The perfect, by expressing that an action is finished or complete, indicates that it is past; but this tense should not be used to express past time without some of the accompaniments above described. ' This mode of expression *has been* formerly very much admired ', should be ' *was* '.

From expressing the finishing of an action, the perfect has been used to signify the state of vacuity that follows : ' he *has been* ' = ' he *is no more* '; ' he *is dead* ' (Lat. *vixit*, ' he *has lived* '). ' I *have been young* ', is ' I *am now old* '.

The perfect of continued action, the **Perfect Progressive** or **Continuous**, ' I have been working ', is correctly understood by combining the meaning of a progressive and of a perfect tense. It is an action expressed as going on up to the present time.

The so-called *present intentional*, ' I am going (or about) to write ', is the exact opposite of the perfect. The one is an action just finished, the other an action just commencing.

THE PROGRESSIVE TENSES OF THE PASSIVE VOICE.

54. In the Passive Voice, the Progressive Tenses are, ' I am being loved ', ' I was being loved ', ' (if) I were being loved '. These forms are of recent introduction.

The English verb has no strictly imperfect participle *passive*. ' Loved ' is past and indefinite, depending for its precise shade of time meaning upon the principal verb it is joined in construction with. Hence, although we can constitute a progressive tense in the active voice, by the active participle and the verb ' be ', —' he is living ', we have no corresponding passive form : ' am loved ' makes the indefinite form. To try to give ' loved ' the desired meaning of continuance, the imperfect or incomplete ' being ' has been prefixed : ' being loved ', = ' existing in the

loved state or condition', is thus an indefinite participle that may easily be interpreted in the sense of a continuing action. The form, indeed, is objectionable, partly as being cumbrous, and partly because it is very often used in a purely past meaning without reference to continuance. 'Napoleon, *being defeated* at Waterloo,' surrendered to the English' is the same as 'Napoleon *was* defeated and surrendered'.

Formerly the meaning was very often given by an apparent use of the active form in the passive sense: 'the house *is building*' for 'the house *is being built*'. But the transferred application of the active form is not real. 'The house *is building*' is a degenerate form of 'the house is *a-building*'; the original expression of which is seen fully in examples like 'forty and six years *was* this temple *in building*'. 'Building', then, is originally a verbal noun; but it has come to have the force of an active participle used in the passive or intransitive sense.

It is very seldom that the old usage causes any ambiguity or hesitation, as numberless examples would show. Johnson says 'my Lives are reprinting'. We constantly say 'the house is finishing', 'the declaration was reading', 'the debt is owing', 'the paper is missing', 'five pounds is wanting', 'the cows are milking', 'the drums are beating', 'the cannon are firing', 'the troops are arming'.

Similar instances of the employment of the active form for the general expression of the action of the verb—instances where the verb is intransitive, and might in one view have been expected to become passive—are very common. We have them in such gerund phrases as 'a house *to let*',* ' hard *to understand*' (= hard for one to understand ; hard, if you want to understand (it), *i.e.* = hard to *be understood*), 'good *to eat*', 'books *to sell*',* 'he is *to blame*', '*drinking*-water (fit for drinking, or to be drunk)', 'a *riding*-horse'. Milton says, 'that cannot but by *annihilating* die'.

55. Intransitive verbs have no passive voice.

There is the appearance of a passive form in examples like '*is* come', '*was* arrived'. But this construction is merely the remains of the regular formation of the perfect tense of intransitives by help of the auxiliary 'be'. Compare the German usage. 'Have' originally belongs to the transitive verbs, but has improperly been transferred to the intransitives also. We say '*has* come' as well as '*is* come'. It would seem advan-

* These, and not 'a house to *be let*', 'to *be sold*', are the genuine English forms.

tageous to utilise the two forms for different meanings.   '*Has*
come' appears more suitable to the case of an active or personal
subject : '*John has* come'; the other to a passive or inanimate
subject : '*the box is* come'. Hence, for '*the noble Brutus is*
ascended', we should now prefer '*has* ascended'. '*He was* (had)
entered into the connexion' is a Scotticism.

The Strong Conjugation.

**56. The Old or Strong Verbs form their
past tense by modifying the vowel of the
present and their past participle ends (or
ended) in -n (-en).**

We have already seen (§ 8) that the modification of the root
vowel arose in the first instance as a result of reduplication.
The *-n* ending of the participle is often dropt.

The following classification proceeds according to the living
forms of the Past Tense and of the Past Participle, not according
to the original inflexions.

**57. 1. Some strong verbs change the vowel
of the Present for the Past Tense and leave it
unchanged in the Past Participle.**

(1) *Past Vowel,* **á :**

Present Tense. é :	Past Tense. á	Past Participle. é :
eat	ate	eaten
í : give	gave	í : given
ú : come	came	ú : come

The compounds—'forgive', 'become', 'overcome'—are con-
jugated similarly.

(2) *Past Vowel,* **à :**

í : bid	à bade	í : bidden, bid
ú : run	ran	ú : run

'Forbid' is conjugated like 'bid'. 'Bade' (O.E. *bæd*) has a
companion form 'bid' (§ 60), adopted from p. part. 'Run'
(O.E. *yrne, rinne*) originally belongs to the class in § 59, 3,
(1), 'begin', &c.

(3) *Past Vowel,* **è** :

ō :	**è**	**ō** :
fall	fell	fallen

'Befall' takes the same forms.

(4) *Past Vowel,* **ō** :

ė :	**ō** (aw)	**ė** :
see	saw	seen

(5) *Past Vowel,* **ú** or yú (-ew) :

á :	**ú** or **yú** (ew)	**á** :
slay	slew	slain
ŏ :		**ŏ** :
blow	blew	blown
crow	crew	crown*
grow	grew	grown
know	knew	known
throw	threw	thrown
ō :		**ō** :
draw	drew	drawn

* There is also the weak form 'crow*ed*'.

(6) *Past Vowel,* **û** :

á :	**û** (oo)	**á** :
forsake	forsook	forsaken
shake	shook	shaken
take	took	taken

In the 16th and 17th centuries the past forms 'forsook', 'shook', 'took', 'mistook', were often used for the past participle. For 'shaken', the weak form 'shaked' is also found.

58. 2. Some strong verbs change the vowel of the Present in the same manner for both Past Tense and Past Participle.

(1) *Vowel* **á** :

	á	**á**
ī : lie	lay	lain

The past part. 'lien' was not uncommon in the 16th and 17th centuries.

(2) *Vowel* **à** :

	à	**à**
ĭ : sit	sat	sat
spit	spat	spat

'Sat', p. part., has been transferred from the past tense to take the place of 'sitten', O.E. *seten.* 'Sate', past and p. p., used to be common a short time ago.

'Spat' is historically weak in the past, and in the past part. has replaced 'spitten'.

(3) *Vowel* **è**:

	è	**è**
ó : behold	beheld	beheld
hold	held	held

'Beholden' and 'holden', past part., have given way, except occasionally in special expressions, to the past forms 'beheld', 'held'. So 'uphold', 'withhold'.

(4) *Vowel* **ì**:

	ì	**ì**
í : bite	bit	bitten, bit
chide	chid	chidden, chid
hide	hid	hidden, hid
slide	slid	slidden, slid

'Bite', 'chide', and 'slide' were formerly conjugated like 'arise', 'drive', &c., (§ 59, 3 (3)), the past forms being 'bot', 'chode' (in Bible), 'slode' (O.E., *bat, cad, slad*). 'Bit' and 'slid' have been assimilated to the past participles. 'Chid' (O.E. *cidde, chidde*) is weak. 'Hid', past, (O.E. *hidde*), is also weak. 'Rid', 'smit', 'writ', &c., also influenced by the participle, were common past forms in the 16th and 17th centuries. 'Betide' would seem to belong here, but it is weak throughout.

(5) *Vowel* **ó**:

	ó	**ó**
á: awake	awoke*	awoke*
bear (carry)	bore	borne
bear (to bring forth)	bore	born
break	broke	broken
swear	swore	sworn
tear	tore	torn
wear	wore	worn
é : cleave (split)	clove*	cloven*
freeze	froze	frozen
shear	shore*	shorn*
speak	spoke	spoken
steal	stole	stolen
weave	wove	woven
í : abide	abode	abode
ú (oo): choose	chose	chosen

* There are also the companion weak forms : 'awaked, cleaved, cleft, sheared'.

'Bear' (to carry) and 'bear' (to bring forth) are not different words, but the same word in different meanings. 'Borne' and 'born' are mere varieties of spelling for the difference in application. 'Forbear' and 'overbear' take the form '-borne'. 'Bare', 'brake', 'share', 'spake', 'tare' (O. E. *bær, bar; bræc, brac; scær, schar; spræc, spac; tær, tar*), are older forms of the past. So 'sware' occurs frequently in the Bible, but the oldest form is *swor*. 'Wear' had an obsolete form 'ware' for 'wore'; it is a weak verb assimilated to this class of strong verbs. 'Cleave' (to split) had 'clave' (O. E. *cleaf*); 'steal' had O.E. *stæl, stal,* and in Scotch it still has *stal* or *sta'*; 'choose' had also 'chase' (O. E. *ceas*). 'Cleave' (to split) has the weak forms 'cleft' and 'cleaved' in past and p.p. The weak 'cleave' (to cling or stick to), O. E. *clifian,* seems sometimes to be confounded with 'cleave' (to split), taking 'clave' as past in the Bible. 'Freeze' has p. past 'frozen' (O. E. *froren* in Spenser, 'frore' in Milton). Compare 'chosen' (O. E. *coren*), and O. E. *losen, forlor(e)n, lorn* (= lost). 'Awoke' and 'abode' (for 'awaken' and 'abiden') are p.p. derived from past; and most of the others appear to have the same usage in the 16th and 17th centuries, though we may also account for it by the dropping of the -*n* of the p.p. : 'broke', 'spoke', &c.

(6) *Vowel* ŏ :

	ŏ	ŏ
é: seethe	sod*	sodden, sod.*
è: get	got	gotten, got.
tread	trod	trodden, trod.
í: shine	shone	shone.
ú (oo): shoot	shot	shot.

* There is also the weak form 'seethed'.

'Beget' and 'forget', like 'get'. An older past tense was -gat' (O. E. -*geat*). 'Shone', p.p., is the past, superseding O.E. *scinen, shinen.*

(7) *Vowel* ō (ou) .

	ō	ō
í: fight	fought	fought

'Fought', p.p., has lost the ending. Shak. has 'this well-foughten field'.

(8) *Vowel* û (oo) :

	û	û
à: stand	stood	stood

'Stood', p.p., is a new application of the past. In O. E. the past part. was *standen.* 'Understand' (which had formerly

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p.p. 'understand*en*', 'understand', and 'understand*ed*') and 'withstand' follow the simple verb. The 'n' in 'stand'—as in 'gang' (go), 'bring', &c. ; Lat. *findo, fundo,* &c.—strengthens the present form ; it is no part of the root.

(9) *Vowel* ù :

	ù	û
a: hang	hung*	hung*
i: strike	struck	struck
i: dig	dug*	dug*
cling	clung	clung
fling	flung	flung
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
spin	spun	spun
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
swing	swung	swung
win	won	won
wring	wrung	wrung

* The parts marked thus (*) have also the weak form.

'Hung', past, (O. E. *heng*), has been transferred to p.p. ; the weak forms are more common for the sense of 'strangle'. 'Struck', O. E. and Scotch *strac* ; O. E. p.p. *stricen* appears later as *strucken, strooken*, 'stricken', now 'struck'. We still usually say 'stricken in years', or 'stricken' with any disease or infirmity. 'Dig' and 'stick' were originally weak.

'Cling', 'fling', 'sling', &c., had a previous *a* in the past tense—'clang', 'flang', &c. ; like the class in § 59, 3, (1), 'begin', &c. But the pasts are now for the most part assimilated to the participles. These have all lost the *-en* ending.

(10) *Diphthong* ou :

	ou	ou
i: bind	bound	bound
find	found	found
grind	ground	ground
wind	wound	wound

Like most of the above class, these four had originally *a* in the past ('band', 'fand', &c.) and *u* in the participle ('bunden', &c.), as in mod. Germ. 'Bounden' remains as an adj. : 'one's *bounden* duty'. Sir W. Scott, in 'his horn he wound' (*Lady of the Lake*) for 'winded', assimilates two different verbs.

59. 3. Some old verbs **change in different ways** both Past Tense and Past Participle.

(1) *Vowels* à, ù :

	à	ù
i : begin	began	begun
drink	drank	drunk
ring	rang	rung
shrink	shrank	shrunk
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
spring	sprang	sprung
stink	stank	stunk
swim	swam	swum

While the verbs in § **58**, 2, (9) have mostly discarded *a* and taken up *u* in the past, the present verbs keep the original *a* and now prefer not to use the *u*, as they often did in the 16th and 17th centuries. (Compare the same verbs in German.) The participial *-en* has been lost, remaining only in a few cases, now adjectival : 'drunk*en*', 'shrunk*en*', 'sunk*en*'.

(2) *Vowels* ì, ù :

	ì	ù
ú(o) : do	did	done

'Did' (O.E. *dide*), as we have seen (§ 8), shows the original reduplication to form the past tense.

(3) *Vowels* ó, ì :

	ó	ì
i : arise	arose	arisen
drive	drove	driven
ride	rode	ridden
rise	rose	risen
shrive	shrove *	shriven *
smite	smote	smitten
stride	strode	stridden
strive	strove	striven *
thrive	throve *	thriven *
write	wrote	written

* The parts marked thus (*) have also the weak form.

Most of these verbs have got their *o* from an original *a* (O.E. *aras*, *draf*, &c.), which appeared in *drave*, *strave*, &c., in the 16th and 17th centuries. Within the same period, shortened forms of the participle were often used—*smit*, *writ*, &c.; and were even transferred to the past tense (compare § **58**, 2, (4).)

(4) *Vowels* ú, ó :

	ú	ó
i : fly	flew	flown

'Flow' has given up this conjugation for the weak formation:
'flowed'. 'Flee', in like manner, has 'fled'.

60. 4. Some strong verbs **have the same vowel
throughout.**

é : beat	beat	beaten
è : let	let	let
i : bid	bid	bidden, bid
u : burst	burst	burst

The past 'beat' now takes the vowel of the present, and may
be considered weak, but in O.E. it was *beot*, later *bet*. 'Let'
had a weak past in the 12th century. For 'bid' see § 57, 1, (2).
'Burst' has been influenced throughout from the participle :
O.E. *berste (pres.)* had past *bearst, barst,* or *brast,* and p. p.
borsten, bursten.

61. 5. The following strong forms are **incomplete.**
The verbs are **nearly all also conjugated in
weak forms.**

heave	hove *	(*hafen, hove(n)*)
wake	woke *	(*wacen*)*
go	(O. E. *eode,* mod. E. went)	gone
en-grave	(*grof,* grove)*	en-graven *
hew	(*heow,* hew)*	hewn *
lade	(*hlod, lod*)*.	laden *
lose	(-*leas*)*	lorn *, forlorn
melt	(*mealt, malt*)*	molten *
mow	(*meow, mew*)*	mown *
rive	(*rove*)*	riven *
shape	(*scop, shope*)*	shapen *
shave	(*scof,* shove)*	shaven *
sow	(*seow, sew*)*	sown *
swell	(*sweal, swal, swol*)	swollen, swoln*
rot	———*	rotten *
saw	———*	sawn *
show	———*	shown *
strew	———*	strewn *
(*be*)	———	been
(*hate*)	hight	hight
(*cwethe*)	quoth (*cwæth*)	(*cwethen*)
(*wese*)	was (*wæs*)	(*wesen*)

* The parts marked thus (*) have also the weak form.

'Hove' (O. E. *hof*) is now almost exclusively nautical : '*hove* to', '*hove* in sight'. 'Go' (O. E. inf. *gangan*, contracted *gán;* indic. *ga*) had an O. E. past *geong, geng*, long since disused, its place being now supplied by 'went', the past of the weak verb 'wend' (O. E. *wendan*, 'to turn', 'go'). An earlier substitute was *eode, yode*, the past of a lost weak verb from the root '*i*' ('to go'). 'Lor(e)n', 'forlor(e)n', have turned *s* into *r*, a common change in language : they are for *losen, forlosen* (§ 58, 2, (5)). 'Molten', 'shaven', 'sown', 'rotten', &c., are only or chiefly used as adjectives : '*molten* gold', '*shaven* crown', &c. 'Rot', 'saw', 'show', 'strew', are weak verbs with the single strong formation of the participle. 'Been' supplies pres. indic. by 'am', and past by 'was'. 'Quoth' may be supplied from 'say', 'said'. 'Hight' originally is only past, but also took the place of *haten, hoten* (called) : now archaic.

The Weak Conjugation.

62. The New or Weak Verbs form their past tense and past participle in -d (or -ed, or -t).

We have already seen (§ 8) that the ending of the past tense, *-d* (O. E. *-de*), is a modification of 'did', the reduplicated past of 'do' ; and that the ending of the participle, though now of the same form, has a different origin.

Most usually the form *-ed* is written, though the *-e* is merely a connecting vowel seldom pronounced now. The pronunciation is influenced by the sounds immediately preceding, and, to agree with this, *-t* is sometimes written in place of *-d* or *-ed.*

63. 1. The most common ending is -ed.

The insertion of the binding vowel is necessary in pronunciation when the simple verb ends in a dental *-t* or *-d* : 'plant, plant-*ed* '; 'proceed, proceed-*ed* '. In cases like 'cite, cit(e)-ed', 'rate, rate(e)-ed', 'precede, preced(e)-ed', the final *-e* of the simple verb is a mere device of spelling, which gives way before the inflexional ending or is utilized as connecting vowel. The binding vowel also appears in cases where it is not wanted for the usual pronunciation, and the addition of the ending is accompanied with some peculiarities of spelling, as in the plural of nouns, the comparison of adjectives and verbs, and the inflexion of second and third persons singular of verbs : 'love, lov*ed* ', 'save, sav*ed* '. 'turn, turn*ed* ', 'fell, fell*ed* ', 'oppose, oppos*ed* ', 'veto, veto-*ed* ', 'sip, sip-*p-ed* ', 'dig, dig-*y-ed* ', 'carry, carr-*i-ed* '.

64. 2. In some cases, **-d** alone is added and the vowel of the simple verb is modified.

(1) With *shortened vowel*:

flee	fled	fled
hear	heard	heard
shoe	shod	shod

(2) With *lengthened vowel* (è into ó):

sell	sold	sold
tell	told	told

'Sell', &c.: O. E. *sellan, sealde, (ge)scald* or *sald*. 'Tell', &c.: O. E. *tellan, tealde, teald* or *tald*. The *e* of the present and the *o* of the past are modifications of an original *a*.

(3) With *change of spelling*:

lay	laid	laid
pay	paid	paid
say	said	said
stay	staid*	staid*

'Lay', &c.: O. E. *lecgan*, 1st sing. pres. indic. *lecge*, later *leye*; past *lecgde, legde, leyde*; p. part. *leyed, leyd*. 'Say', &c.: O. E. *secgan*, indic. *secge, seye*; past *sæyde, sæde, seide*; p. part. *sægd, sæd*. 'Staid' is usually an adjective, or intransitive. '*Afraid*' is originally the p. part. of 'affray', and was previously spelt 'affrayed'.

(4) With *other change*: 'clad', 'had', 'made'.

clothe	clad*	clad*
have	had	had
make	made	made

Clothede or *clethede, clethde, cledde, cled*, 'clad'; on analogy of *ledde, ladde, lad*, 'led'. For 'had', see § 16. 'Make', &c.: O. E. *macian, macode, macod*; *c* falls out by the 13th century; Chaucer has p. p. both *maked* and *maad*.

65. 3. Often **-t** is added for **-d**.

After *a surd (sharp) consonant (p, f (v), k, s (z)*, and *l, m, n*), *preceded by a short or shortened vowel*:

p: creep	crept	crept
keep	kept	kept
leap	leăpt*	leăpt*
sleep	slept	slept
sweep	swept	swept
weep	wept	wept

* The parts marked thus (*) have also the form in *-ed*.

dip	dipt*	dipt*
ship	shipt*	slipt*
strip	stript*	stript*
whip	whipt*	whipt*
chop	chopt*	chopt*
drop	dropt*	dropt*
lop	lopt*	lopt*
stop	stopt*	stopt*
&c.		&c.
f (v): bereave	bereft*	bereft*
cleave	cleft*	cleft*
leave	left	left

'Puffed', 'stuffed', &c., are written, though we speak 'puft', stuft', &c.

k : 'crack*t*', 'lick*t*', 'lock*t*', &c., may be written, but the forms in *-ed* are the common ones.

s: pass	past*	past*
bless	blest*	blest*
press	prest*	prest*
s (z): lose	lost	lost

The verbs in *-ss* drop one *s* before *-t*; but this formation is not common. It is more frequent in poetry than in prose, as it represents the pronunciation to the eye.

l : deal	dĕalt	dĕalt
feel	felt	felt
kneel	knelt	knelt
dwell	dwelt *	dwelt *
smell	smelt *	smelt *
spell	spelt *	spelt *
spill	spilt *	spilt *

One of the *l*s is dropt before *-t.*

m : dream	drĕamt *	drĕamt *
n : lean	lĕant*	lĕant*
mean	mĕant	mĕant
pen (*shut*)	pent*	pent
learn	lĕarnt *	lĕarnt *
burn	burnt *	burnt *

In O. E. such verbs as 'blanch', 'clench', 'drench', 'quench', 'singe', &c., left out the *ch* or *g* in the past tense and p. part.: 'blent, blent', 'cleynte, cleynt', &c., 'seynde, seynd', &c.

'Wont', as in 'he was *wont*', is the p. part. of the obsolete verb 'wone' (O. E. *wunian*), 'to dwell': hence 'wont' (part.)

* The parts marked thus (*) have also the form in *-ed*.

= ' in the habit (of) ', and 'wont' (noun), 'habit', 'custom '.
Sometimes 'wont' was used as a past tense, for 'was wont'.
Also '*wonts*' (= 'is accustomed '), and ' wonted' ('accustomed',
'usual '), p. part. as adjective.

(2) After *vowel changed to ō* (*au* or *ou*) :

| *au* : catch | caught* | caught* |
| teach | taught | taught |

'Catch' has assimilated its forms to 'teach'. O. E. *tæcan*
(indic. *tæce*), *tæhte, tæht.*

We have also 'fraught' (for 'freighted') ; and 'distraught'
(for 'distracted')—O. E. *streccan* (indic. *strecce* : 'stretch') form-
ing *streahte, streaht.* 'Reach' at one time had 'raught' (for
'reached').

ou : beseech	besought *	besought *
bring	brought	brought
buy	bought	bought
seek	sought	sought
think	thought	thought
(me)thinks	(me)thought	
work	wrought*	wrought *

'Beseech' is from 'seek', O. E. *secan* (indic. *sece*), *sohte,*
soht. 'Bring' and 'think' have inserted a non-radical *n* : like
'stand', &c. (§ 58, 2, (8)). Besides *brohte, broht, bringan* had in
O. E. also *brang, brungen* : like 'sing', &c. (§ 59, 3, (1)).
Thencan had *thohte, thoht.* 'Methinks' lit. '(to) *me* (it) *seems*')
is cognate : O. E. *thyncth, thuhte, thuht.* 'Buy', &c. : O. E.
bycgan (indic. *bycge*), *bohte, boht.* 'Work', &c. : O.E. *wyrcan,*
worhte, worht.

**66. 4. Final -d of the simple verb is some-
times changed to -t, when preceded by a
liquid—n, l, or r.** The liquid is also preceded by a
short vowel.

ènd : bend	bent*	bent *
blend	blent*	blent*
lend	lent*	lent*
rend	rent	rent
send	sent	sent
spend	spent	spent
wend	went *	—*
ïld : build	built*	built*
gild	gilt *	gilt *
ïrd : gird	girt *	girt *

The past ending -de readily coalesced with the d of the simple verb; and the influence of the preceding short vowel and liquid easily turned -d into -t. 'Went' supplies a past form to 'go' (§ 61, 5).

67. 5. Some weak verbs **merely shorten the long vowel of the simple form.**

bleed	bled	bled
breed	bred	bred
feed	fed	fed
lead	led	led
rēad	rĕad	rĕad
speed	sped	sped
betide (§§ 58, (4), 2)	betid	betid
chide	chid	chid
hide	hid	hid
meet	met	met
light	lit *	lit *

Most of these end in -d. In O.E. the pasts show the inflexional ending: 'fedde', 'ledde', &c. 'Alight' takes the full form, 'alighted'.

68. 6. Some weak verbs **often show no difference of form** in the past tense and past participle.

beat (§ 60, 4)	beat	beat
bet	bet *	bet *
bid (§ 60, 4)	bid	bid

And similarly: burst (§ 60, 4), cast, cut, durst, hit, hurt, knit, let, put, rid, set, shed, shred, shut, slit, split, spread, thrust.

In the Elizabethan age the -ed of weak verbs was often dispensed with, especially in poetry.

69. In addition to those already mentioned, the following verbs, **originally strong, have become weak:**

ache	chew	drop	glide
bellow	climb	dye	gnaw
be-reave	creep	fare	gripe
bow	cringe	flee	hang (§ 58, 2, (9))
braid	crowd	float	help
brew	delve	flow	knead
burn	dive	fold	laugh
carve	dread	fret	leap

let	row	starve	wax
lie (tell lies)	rue	step	weep
lock	scathe	stint	weigh
lot (cast lots)	shed (divide)	suck	well
lout (bow)	shove	sup	whoop
low	sigh	swallow	wield
mete	sleep	sweep	worth (be)
milk	slip	thrash	wreak
mourn	slit	throng	{ wreathe }
quell	smoke	tug (draw)	{ writhe }
quench	sneak	wade (go)	yell
reap	spew	walk	yelp
reek	spurn	wash	yield

70. A few of the **most common errors** in the conjugation of the more irregular verbs, whether old or new, may be noted.

The chief misleading circumstance is that in the new verbs we are habituated to the identity of form of the past tense and the past participle, whence we are apt to apply the same rule to the old verbs. 'The letter was *wrote* (for *written*)'; 'the wine was *drank* (for *drunk*)'; 'he has *broke* (*broken*) the window'; 'I have much *mistook* your passion'; 'I have already *chose* (*chosen*) my officer'. 'I have *struck*' is now in use for the ancient form, 'I have *stricken*'. 'I had neither *ate* nor *drank*' should be '*eaten* nor *drunk*'; 'and now the years a numerous train have *ran*' (for *run*).

There is a confusion between the verbs 'lay' and 'lie'. We often see such errors as 'the book *lays* (for *lies*) on the table'; 'let it *lay*' (for *lie*).

In poetry especially there is a strong tendency to confound the past tense and the past participle : 'I *begun*' (for *began*), 'the latest minstrel *sung*'.

Technical language retains older forms : 'the charge was found *proven*' (the ordinary p. part. being 'proved').

DERIVATION.

SOURCES OF ENGLISH WORDS.

I. The English Vocabulary has drawn words from many languages; especially from **Latin,** directly or indirectly.

The Grammar of our language is **exclusively native.**

In the early centuries of the Christian era, Britain was invaded from the country that now forms Denmark and the North-west of Germany by certain tribes under the names of Jutes, Angles, and Saxons. The year 449 is assigned as the date of the landing of the Jutes in the Isle of Thanet, in Kent, under Hengist and Horsa. Other invasions followed; and in the course of a hundred years the Jutes, Saxons, and Angles were established over the greater part of England. There were different dialects spoken among these several tribes, although they were closely allied to each other. The early compositions that have come down to us nearly all exemplify one dialect—the dialect of the western counties. A few fragments illustrate the dialectical peculiarities of the counties of the North. In the midland counties there was yet a third dialect; and from this the modern English of literature has more directly descended.

As the Angles or English established the political superiority of their name, so the common term for the language of the Teutonic conquerors was English. Taking together the contributions of all the united tribes, we assume these as the basis of the present English tongue.

The other great element is the Roman, by which is meant the aggregate of English words drawn from the Latin language, but derived by us for the most part through the French. The early English and Latin together constitute the mass of our vocabulary.

The remaining constituents are : words from languages belonging to the common stock called Teutonic, of which English is a member—Dutch, German, and Scandinavian ; words from the Keltic languages spoken in Britain before the English conquest—Welsh and Gaelic ; words from the Greek ; and words from the languages of distant countries connected with us by colonisation, trade, &c.

2. The Classical element of our language, by which is meant the Latin, together with the Greek, was introduced at different periods.

3. I. During the Roman occupation of the island, between A.D. 43 and A.D. 410.

The words that remain from this period are chiefly local names connected with military stations.

Castra (a camp) gives 'Lancaster', 'Gloucester', 'Winchester', 'Exeter', &c.

Colonia (a Roman settlement): 'Lincoln'.

Fossa (a trench): 'Fossway', 'Fosbrook', 'Fossbury'.

Portus (a harbour): 'port', 'Portsmouth', 'Porchester'.

Strata (paved road): 'Stratford', 'Streatham', 'street', &c.

Vallum (a palisaded rampart): 'bailiff', 'Old Bailey', 'Wallbury'.

4. II. During the four centuries following the introduction of Christianity, A.D. 596.

The contributions during this interval include many words of a religious character, and the names of institutions and natural productions introduced by the missionaries.

ECCLESIASTICAL. *Latin.*

altar	cowl	disciple	mass	pall	saint
chalice	creed	feast	offer	porch	shrine
cloister	cross	font	pagan	preach	sacrament

Greek.

alms	bishop	clerk	hymn	monk	psalter
angel	canon	deacon	martyr	priest	stole
apostle	church	heretic	minister	psalm	synod

NATURAL OBJECTS. *Latin.*

beet	fig	millet	pine
box	laurel	mule	pumice
cedar	lettuce	oyster	rue
chalk	lily	palm	tiger
cherry	lion	pard	trout
cucumber	mallow	pea-*cock*	turtle
elm	marble	pearl	vulture

Greek.

agate	crystal	phœnix
anise	hellebore	sponge
camel	myrrh	sycamore

MISCELLANEOUS. *Latin.*

acid	chancellor	ell	nurse	rule
anchor	chest	empire	ounce	sack
ark	circle	fever	palace	senate
axle	city	fork	plant	spade
belt	cook	gem	plume	table
bench	coulter	grade	pound	temple
bile	crisp	mile	prone	title
candle	crest	mortar	provost	tunic
capital	crown	muscle	purple	verse

Greek.

cymbal	metre	rheum
epistle	philosopher	school
giant	plaster	theatre

The words 'baptize', 'synagogue', 'disciple', 'resurrection', 'parable', 'repentance', and many others superseded names of native origin for the same things.

5. III. The great accession of Latin words took place subsequent to the Norman Conquest, forming what is called the Norman-French element of our Language.*

The Normans gave the names pertaining to feudal-

* 'The Normans were originally Scandinavians, who settled in France as their brethren had done in England. In 912, Charles III. ceded to them the province called Normandy after them. Here they came into contact with a people speaking a language derived from the Latin, and, like the Franks and the other barbarian invaders of Gaul, Italy, and Spain, they gradually ceased to use their own Scandinavian tongue, and adopted the language spoken by the inhabitants of their new home. This language has obtained the name of French, from the Franks, who conquered Gaul in the fifth century, and, like the Italian, Spanish, and other languages derived from the Latin, is frequently called a Romance language, to commemorate its Roman origin. The first introduction of French into England dates from the time of the later Saxon kings. Ethelred II. married Emma, daughter of Richard, Duke of Normandy; and his son, Edward the Confessor, who was brought up at the Norman court, and spoke the French language, gave great offence to his English subjects by his partiality for this tongue, and by his introducing French ecclesiastics into the kingdom. But the important event, which firmly planted the French language in England, was the conquest of the country by William, Duke of Normandy, in the year 1066. For two centuries French was the language of the English court; Norman settlers, speaking French, were spread over the country, and filled all the ecclesiastical and civil posts; and French was spoken in the courts of law and taught in the schools. In this way a large mass of the population must have become acquainted with French; and a very great number of French words was gradually introduced into the English language '.—(Marsh's Lectures, II.)

ism, war, law, and the **chase,** as well as additions to the **general vocabulary.**

Feudalism and war.

aid	buckler	guardian	mail	trumpet
armour	castle	hauberk	peer	truncheon
array	champion	harness	relief	vassal
assault	chivalry	herald	scutage	vizor
banner	dower	homage	scutcheon	war
baron	esquire	joust	tallage	ward
battle	fealty	lance	tenant	warden

Law.

advocate	case	felony	paramount	statute
approver	contract	judge	plaint	sue
arrest	estate	justice	plea	suit
assize	fee	larceny	sentence	surety

The Chase.

bay	couple (v),	forest	quarry	tiercel
brace	covert	leash	reclaim	venison
chase	falconer	mew	sport	verderer

But in addition to the names on these special subjects, many hundreds, if not thousands, of words of French origin were incorporated with the *general vocabulary* in the course of three or four centuries. In Layamon, in Chaucer, in Wycliffe, the acquisition of French words is seen going on.

Few words seem to have been derived at this period from the Latin directly. It cannot, however, in all cases be known whether words from the Latin have passed through the French; but nouns in 'our' (ard*our*), 'ier' (caval*ier*), 'chre' (sepul*chre*), 'eer' (auction*eer*), adjectives in 'que' (uni*que*), and words beginning with 'counter', 'pur', and 'sur' (*counter*act, *pur*pose, *sur*prise), are of this class. And, generally speaking, when words of classical origin are greatly altered in the English spelling, they have not come directly from the Latin; as 'reason' (Fr. *raison*, Lat. *rationem*), 'journal' (Fr. *journal*, Lat. *diurnalis*), 'ally' (Fr. *allier*, Lat. *allegare*), 'accomplice' (Fr. *complice*, Lat. *complex*), 'beauty' (Fr. *beauté*, Lat. *bellus*), 'obey' (Fr. *obéir*, Lat. *obedire*, from *audire*).*

6. IV. After the Revival of Learning, many words were taken directly from the Latin, and a smaller number from the Greek.

The greater number of words bearing evidence of being obtained directly from the Latin, have been introduced since the revival of letters in the beginning of the sixteenth century.

* Angus on the English Language, p, 16.

A few are selected by way of specimen :—

abdicate	adhere	beatify	cardinal	cogitate
abhor	admire	benevolence	case	command
abject	adopt	biennal	cause	council
abjure	affirm	biped	celebrate	commit
abnegate	agent	calamity	celestial	common
abominate	aggravate	callous	chain	compassion
absent	alacrity	camp	chance	complacent
accelerate	allocate	cant	charity	compose
accede	alternate	capillary	circumference	concord
address	announce	carbon	circle	confess, &c.

Our abstract nouns ending in *y* and *ion*—a pretty numerous class—are very slightly altered from the Latin original : 'calamity' (*calamitā-tem*); 'compassion' (*compassiō-nem*). They follow the forms of the earlier derivation of these through French.

The diffusion of Latin words in English is most comprehensively seen by examining a list of Latin roots, and noting their respective prevalence in the language. The following are a few of the best known :—

Verbs :

ago	*facio*	pendeo	scribo	tango
cado	*fero*	plico	sentió	tendo
cerno	gen-	*pono*	sequor	teneo
claudo	habeo	porto	servo	traho
credo	jaceo	premo	solvo	venio
curro	jungo	probo	specio	*verto*
dico	lego	pungo	spiro	video
do	levo	puto	statuo	*voco*
duco	*mitto*	quæro	*sto*	volvo
eo	moneo	rego	struo	
esse	nascor	salio	sumo	

Nouns :

anima	cura	jus	munus	signum
caput	forma	lex	nomen	tempus
cor	gratia	manus	*pars*	testis

Adjectives :

æquus	firmus	magnus	primus
alter	fortis	malus	similis
bonus	gravis	medius	unus

The number of Greek roots is smaller, but some of them are fruitful of compounds. Conspicuous examples are :

ago (to lead)	démos (the people)	logos (speech)
archo (to begin)	grapho (to write)	ōdē (a song)
cyclos (a circle)	hudor (water)	pan (all)

pathos (feeling)	polis (a city)	tithēmi (to place)
phainō (to show, **ap-**	poieö (to make)	topos (a place)
pear)	scopeö (to see)	zoön (an animal)
phileö (to love)	techné (art)	&c.

Of the words derived from these roots, the following are a few examples :—demagogue, archæology, hydrography, cyclopædia, melody, pantheon, sympathy, phenomenon, telescope, technical, hypothesis, topography, zoology.

'The importance of these roots may be seen from the fact that from *pono* and *positum* we have in English two hundred and fifty words ; from *plico*, two hundred ; from *fero* and *latum*, one hundred and ninety-eight ; from *specio*, one hundred and seventy-seven ; from *mitto* and *missum*, one hundred and seventy-four ; from *tenec* and *tentum*, one hundred and sixty-eight ; from *capio* and *captum*, one hundred and ninety-seven ; from *tendo* and *tensum*, one hundred and sixty-two ; from *duco* and *ductum*, one hundred and fifty-six. *Logos* gives us one hundred and fifty-six ; *graphein*, one hundred and fifty-two. These twelve words, therefore, enter into the composition of nearly two thousand five hundred English words. *One hundred and fifty-four* Greek and Latin primitives yield nearly thirteen thousand words.'—(Angus, English Language, p. 46.)

A great many Latin and Greek words are still *imperfectly incorporated* in the language. All the nouns that make the plural according to classical forms, and not according to the English form, are of this kind.

The demands of science, and even of industry and the common arts, lead to the **unceasing introduction of new classical words** : telegraph, microphone, telephone, bicycle, photography, locomotive, terminus, caloric, basic, colloid, aeronaut, diagnosis, amalgam, cataclysm, onomatopœia, &c.

It would form a useful exercise to note and compare words that have come directly, and words that have come indirectly through French, from Latin or Greek. For example : 'aggravate, aggrieve'; 'benediction, benison'; 'blaspheme, blame'; 'captive, caitiff'; 'diurnal, journal'; 'fact, feat'; 'faction, fashion'; 'fragile, frail'; 'gaud, jewel, joy'; 'juncture, jointure'; 'loyal, royal, legal, regal'; 'major, mayor'; 'nutriment, nourishment'; 'phantasy, fancy'; 'pedestrian, pioneer'; 'providence, purveyance, prudence'; 'sequel, suit'; 'species, spice'; 'superficies, surface'; 'supreme, sovereign'; 'tradition, treason'; &c.

7. Keltic dialects existed at an early period, and still partly exist in Britain.

The Keltic dialects now remaining are the **Welsh, Gaelic, Manx,** and **Irish.**

One large class of names derived from them are **names of places.**

Rivers :—Clyde, Don (Doon, Devon, Tyne, Teign, Tone), Dee, Thames, Avon, Stour, Severn, Trent, Esk (Usk, Exe, Wash, Ouse), Leven, Wye, the Tors (Derby and Devon).

Hills :—Malvern, Mendip, Cheviot, Chiltern, Grampian, &c.

Islands :—Wight, Man, Arran, Bute, Mull.

Counties :—Kent, Devon, Glamorgan, Dor-*set*, Dur-*ham*, Wilt-*s*.

Towns :—Liver-pool, Carlisle, Penzance, Peel, Pen-rith, Cardiff, Llandaff.*

Among Keltic names of places we are to include those containing the following elements:

Aber (mouth of river) : Aberdeen, Aberbrothwick (Arbroath), Aberwick (Berwick), Aberystwith.

Al (white) : Albyn, Allan, Lune.

Ard, Aird (high) : Ardrossan, Arran ; Dysart, Lizard.

Ath (ford) : Athlone.

Auch, auchin (field) : Auchmull, Auchinleck ; Aughrim.

Auchter (height) : Auchterarder, Auchtergaven, Auchterless.

Bal, bally (village) : Balgownie, Ballymahon.

Bala (issue of river from lake) : Bala, Balloch.

Ban (white) : Bandon, Banna.

Beg (little) : Ballybeg, Killybegs.

Ben, or Pen (head, mountain) : Benlomond, Pendleton, Penmaenmawr, Pentland.

Blair (field, clear of wood) : Blairgowrie, Blair Athole.

Bottom (valley) : common in Sussex, and in personal names.

Brae (hilly rough piece of land) : Braemar.

Caer, Car (fort, town) : Caerleon, Cardiff, Cardow

Cain (white) : Ken, Kennet.

Cairn (heap of stones, rocky hill) : Cairnbanno, Cairngorm.

Cam (crooked) : Cambeck, Cambuskenneth.

Cefn (back, *chine*) : Chevin, Cheviot, Keynton.

Coed (wood) : Cotswold, Chatmoss

Combe, comp (hollow or *bent* side of a hill) : Compton, Ilfracombe, Melcombe, Wycombe.

Craig, Carrick, crick (rock, crag) : Craigdam, Carrickfergus, Cricklade.

Cul (back or hind part) : Culdaff, Culross.

Dal, dol (plain) : Dalkeith, Dalry, Dolgelly.

Dhu (black) : Douglas, Diggles, Dublin, Cardow, Tomdow.

Don (water) : Bandon. (See also above : *Rivers*.)

Dour (water) : Darent, Dart, Darwin, Derwent.

Drum (ridge) : Dromore, Dundrum, Tyndrum.

Dun (hill) : Dunblane, Dunkeld, Dumbarton, the Downs, Snowdon.

* Adams on the English Language.

Esk (water, current) : Esker, Esthwaite, Ashbourne, Easeburn, Isis.   (See also above : *Rivers*.)

Fell (hill) : Carterfell, Scafell, Snæfell.

Garw (rough) : Garry, Yarrow.

Glen, glyn (narrow valley) : Glencoe, Glenshee, Glynneath.

Gorm (blue) : Cairngorm.

Gwent (plain) : Nantglyn, Winchester.

Inch, Ennis (island) : Inchcolm, Inchkeith, Enniskillen.

Inver (mouth of river, land fit for tillage) : Inverness.

Ken, Kin (head) : Kenmare, Kenmore, Kent, Kinnaird, Kinross, Cantire.

Kill (cell, chapel, burying-ground) : Kilmarnock, Kilsyth, Icolmkill.

Lin (deep pool) : Linlithgow, Dublin, Roslin.

Lis (mound) : Lismore.

Llann (church) : Llandaff.

Magh (plain) : Maynooth, Armagh.

Mor (great) : Benmore.

Mor (sea) : Moray, Glamorgan

Rath (mound) : Rathlin.

Rin (point) : Penrhyn, Rins (of Galloway).

Ros (promontory) : Ross, Kinross, Melrose, Roseneath.

Strath (broad valley) : Strathmore, Strathspey.

Tam (spreading, broad) : Tamar, Thames.

Tre (town) : Coventry, Oswestry.

Wy (water) : Conway, Medway, Solway.[*]

The words in the general vocabulary derived from the Keltic dialects are given in the Appendix I.

8. Our intercourse with the Danes and other northern nations has brought us a considerable number of **Scandinavian words.**

These are chiefly **names of places and of persons.**

The Scandinavian nations are the Icelanders, Danes, Norwegians, and Swedes. The oldest Scandinavian language is the Old Norse of Norway, now spoken with little alteration in Iceland. The Danish invasions of Great Britain have left us a number of Scandinavian words. In the counties north of the Wash and the Mersey many of the names of places are from this source.

[*] Angus on the English Language, p. 18. See also Chambers's Exercises. in Etymology.

A, ay, ea, ey, oe (island): Staffa, Cumbray, Chelsea, Anglesey, Orkney, Faroe.

A, ea, ey (water, river): Greta, Waveney.

Ark (temple): Arkholm.

Beck, batch (brook): Caldbeck, Wansbeck, Snailbatch.

Brek (steep): Norbrek.

By (Norse *byr*, farm, village): Derby, Grimsby, Netherbyres, Netherby.

Dale (valley): Borrowdale, Tweeddale, Arundel.

Dan (Dane): Danby.

Den, Dean (hollow valley): Hawthornden, Tenterden, Southdean.

Ding, thing (meeting-place): Dingwall.

Fiord (inlet): Milford, Seaford, Waterford.

Fleet (flood): Ebbsfleet, Northfleet, Purfleet.

Force (*fors*, a waterfall): Mickleforce.

Garth (*yard*, enclosure): Applegarth, Dalegarth, Drumgarth.

Gate (passage, way): Gallowgate, Margate, Reigate.

Gil (narrow cleft in side of valley): Ormesgill. Frequent in Iceland.

Holm (island in lake or river; plain near river): Arkholm, Flatholm, Langholm.

Kell (spring): Kelby.

Kirk (church): Laurencekirk, Ladykirk.

Lax (salmon): Laxay, Laxford, Laxweir.

Ness (headland): Bowness, Caithness.

Scale (shealing): Portinscale, Shields, Galashiels.

Scar (cliff): Scarborough, the Skerries.

Scaw (wood): Scawfell.

Skip (ship): Skipwith, Skipton.

Ster (place): Lybster, Ulbster, Ulster.

Suther (south): Sutherland.

Tarn (mountain lake): Tarnsyke.

Thorpe, Throp (village): Ravensthorpe, Woolthorpe, Heythrop.

Thwaite (piece of land): Crosthwaite.

Toft (small field): Lowestoft.

Wick, wig, wich (Norse *vik*, creek, bay): Ipswich, Sandwich.

With (wood): Langwith.

The termination 'son' appended to names is Norse: 'Swainson', 'Ericson'. 'Ulf' or 'Ulph', found in proper names, is Norse for 'wolf',

The Scandinavian words in the general vocabulary are given in the Appendix II.

9. Various other members of the **Teutonic stock** of languages (to which English belongs) have contributed words to the English vocabulary.

It happens that a certain number of English words are not found in early English writings, but occur in Dutch, German, Flemish, &c. We thence infer that such words have been derived from those languages, although it is also possible that they may have existed in ancient English dialects, as spoken, if not as written, or that they may belong in origin to a period when English and these other languages had not yet branched off from the common stock. We do not know the history of the actual introduction of all our foreign words.

The words derived from the other Teutonic languages are given in the Appendix III.

10. Words introduced from the **French,** and more or less perfectly assimilated, have reference to various subjects:

War:

aide-de-camp	émeute	matériel	retreat
bayonet	epaulet	mêlée	reveille
bivouac	fusée	mitrailleuse	ruse
casern	glacis	mobilise	scarp
chevalier	hors-de-combat	parley	sortie
cordon	intern	parole	squad
corps	manœuvre	picquet	tirade
élan	marque (lettre de)	redan	tirailleur

Literature, art, and affairs:

aperçu	critique	laissez faire	programme
attaché	cue	mise-en-scène	rédaction
ballet	début	naïveté	régime
belles lettres	dénouement	nom de plume	renaissance
brochure	doctrinaire	parliament	resumé
bureau	encore	parvenu	rôle
clef	esprit	persiflage	rondeau
clique	façade	personnel	routine
connoisseur	feuilleton	portfolio	savant
coup d'état	finesse	portrait	tapis
coupon	hautboy	pourparler	troubadour
crayon	jeu d'esprit	précis	vers de société

Fashion, manners, and pleasure:

alamode	badinage	billet-doux	blasé
amende honorable	beau—belle	bizarre	bonbon

bonhomie	croquet	fête	rechauffé
bonne	distingué	foible	recherché
boudoir	eau de Cologne	mésalliance	roué
bouquet	éclat	millionaire	rouleau
brusque	élite	le beau monde	sangfroid
carte	ennui	nonchalance	soirée
chaise	entrée	outré	ton
congé	etiquette	pas	valet

Dress:

blonde	chignon	crochet	modiste	queue (cue)
blouse	coif	deshabille	moire	rouge
bonnet	coiffure	fichu	paletot	surtout
busk	crinoline	golosh	pelisse	trousseau

Cookery: biscuit, déjeûner, entrées, entremêts, fricassée, goût, menu, omelet, ragoût.

Miscellaneous:

accouchement	crèche	éclat	rapport
apropos	cul de sac	entourage	réverie
café	débris	fracas	soi-disant
canard	dépôt	immortelles	souvenir
chagrin	dernier ressort	lieu	tête-à-tête
château	devoir	penchant	tic-douloureux
chef	douceur	prestige	vis-à-vis
cortège	douche	protégé	vogue

11. **Italian** has contributed words relating to **music, sculpture,** and **painting,** with some **miscellaneous** words.

akimbo	brigand	carmine
alert	brigantine	carnival
allegro	brocade	cartel
alto	broccoli	cartoon
arquebuse	bronze	casino
askance	brush	cassock
askant	bubble	castle
attitude	burlesque	charlatan
avast	buzz	cicerone
ballad	cameo	citadel
bandit	cannon	company
banquet	canteen	companion
bass	cape	conceit
bassoon	caper	concert
bigot	captain	cosset
boa	caravel (a kind of	cozen
bravo	ship)	crate
breve	caricature	crypt

cuff (blow)
cupola
curry (dress leather)
cutlass
curtal (axe)
despatch
dilettante
dimity
ditto
domino
dram
embrocation
ferret
fib
fit (an attack of pain)
folio
freak (whim)
gabion
gallant
gambado
garnet
gazette
gondola
gorge
granite
grapple

grate (*noun*)
grime
grotto
grotesque
group
harlequin
hazard
indigo
inveigle
invoice
list (catalogue)
lupines
lurch
luscious
macaroni
madrigal
mere (*adj.*)
mongrel
motto
nun
opera
paladin
palette
parapet
parasol
pedestal

pigeon
pilgrim
pistol
policy (insurance)
porcupine
portico
profile
punch (stage puppet)
purl (edging for lace)
puttock
regatta
scaramouch
sketch
soprano
stanza
stiletto
stucco
studio
tenor
terra-cotta
torso
umbrella
virtuoso
vista
volcano
zany

12. Spanish :—

alcove
alligator
almond
armada
armadillo
barilla
battledore
bezel (basil)
booby
borachio
bustard
calabash
calenture
caparison
capon
caracol
cargo
cask (casket, casque)

castanets
cigar
clarion
cochineal
cockatrice
cork
corridor
corsair
crab (a windlass)
desperado
discard
dismay
don
embargo
embarrass
filigree
filibuster
flotilla

fumadoes
gabardine
gala
galleon
garbage
garble
grandee
hidalgo
jade
javelin
jennet
junta—junto
lawn (cloth)
levant (v.)
maroon
molasses
mosquito
mulatto

negro	pickaroon	pounce (the talon of
ninny	pillion	a bird of prey)
pail	pint	punctilio
pamphlet	plate (vessels of gold	savannah
pawn (chess man)	and silver)	sherry
peccadillo	potato	tornado

13. Portuguese :—

caste	fetish	porcelain
cocoa	mandarin	palaver
commodore	marmalade	verandah

14. The following words are traced to the **Walloon**, a dialect spoken in some districts in the north-east of France and in Belgium : fester, funk, harridan.

15. Swiss :—

daw	dismal	fetlock	glimpse	haggle	mart

16. Turkish :—

bey	candy	horde	salep
bosh	carviare	janizary	seraglio
caftan	chouse	khan	shagreen (leather)
caique	divan	odalisque	simmer

17. Arabic :—

admiral	attar (otto)	fakir	minaret	shrub
alchemy	azimuth	felucca	moonshee	simoom
alcohol	borax	firman	moslem	sirocco
alcove	cadi	gazelle	mosque	sofa
alembic	caliph	giraffe	mufti	sultan
algebra	camphor	harem	mummy	syrup
alkali	carat	hegira	nadir	tabor
almanac	chemistry	jar (bottle)	naphtha	talisman
amber	cipher	julep	nard	tamarind
amulet	civet	koran	rice	tambourine
arrack	coffee	lemon	saffron	tare
arsenal	cotton	lute	salaam	tariff
artichoke	dragoman	magazine	sandal (wood)	vizier
asa(fœtida)	elixir	mameluke	sheik	zenith
assassin	emir	mattress	sherbet (drink)	zero

18. Hebrew :—

abbey	cherub	hosanna	sabbath
abbot	cinnamon	jubilee	sapphire
amen	ephod	leviathan	seraph
behemoth	gehenna	manna	shekel
cabal	hallelujah	pharisee	shibboleth

19. Persian :—

azure	chess	kaffir	sash
backsheesh	curry	lac (resinous	satrap
balcony	dervise	substance)	scimitar
barbican	emerald	lilac	shawl
bashaw	hookah	musk	taffeta
bazaar	howdah	orange	tiffin
caravan	jackal	pasha	tulip
check-mate	jasmin	saraband	turban

20. Hindu :—

banian	coolie	muslin	rajah
betel	cowrie	nabob	rupee
buggy	jungle	pagoda	sepoy
bungalow	lac (100,000 rupees)	palanquin	shampoo
calico	lascar	pariah	sugar
cassowary	loot	punch	suttee
chintz	mullagatawny	pundit	toddy

21. Malay :—

a-muck	cajeput	mango	sago
bamboo	gamboge (Cambodia)	mangrove	creese
bantam (Java)	gingham (Java)	orang-outang	dugong

22. Chinese :—

bohea	congou	hyson	pekoe	taol
caddy	gong	naukeen	satin	tea

23. Polynesian :—

tattoo	taboo	kangaroo

24. American :—

alpaca	hurricane	mocassin	tomahawk
cannibal	jerked (beef) (Chili)	pampas	tomato
canoe	jaguar (Braz.)	skunk	wampum
cayman	jalap (Mex.)	squaw	wigwam
caoutchouc	lama	tapioca	yam
condor	mahogany	tapir	
hammock	maize	tobacco	

25. Names of Persons :—

braggadocio	hermetic	orrery	simony
cinchona	lazaretto	ottoman	spencer
davy (safety lamp)	macadamize	pander	stentorian
galvanism	macintosh	philippic	tantalize
herculean	maudlin	quixotic	&c.

26. Names of Places :—

academy

arras

artesian

bayonet

currants (Corinth)

copper (Cyprus)

cambric (Cambray)

damask

ermine (Armenia.)

guinea

japan

magnet

milliner

muslin (Mussoul)

parchment (Pergamos)

peach (Persia)

spaniel (Hispaniola)

toledo

worsted (Worstead)

&c.

27. For practical purposes it is useful to be able to discriminate the words of classical origin from those belonging originally to English.

This may be done to a considerable extent by the help of a few general rules.

28. I. Certain divisions of the parts of speech are native English :

The pronouns. Adjectives : pronominal, numeral, irregularly compared, and the Articles. Verbs : auxiliary and defective. Adverbs : the simple adverbs of place, time, and cause and effect. The prepositions. The conjunctions. The exceptions are extremely few : ' second ', ' except ', ' save ', &c.

29. II. All words undergoing vowel changes are old English.

Nouns forming verbs: ' bliss, bless '; ' blood, bleed '. Nouns changing vowel in the plural : ' man, men ' ; ' tooth, teeth '. Adjectives forming nouns : ' long, length ', ' strong, strength '. Verbs : the old or strong verbs ; the new verbs making vowel changes : ' bereave, bereft '; the causative verbs formed by vowel changes : ' lie, lay '. Words modifying the final consonant : ' grass, graze ' ; ' stick, stitch '.

30. III. Most words with distinctive English endings are of home make.

If we had a complete list of the *Hybrids*, formed by joining English roots to classical endings, or the converse, such a list would give all the exceptions to this rule. These words are very numerous. The following are examples :—

Classical roots with English endings : principal*ly*, polite*ly*, round*ly*, beast*ly ;* apt*ness*, correct*ness*, passive*ness*, righteous*ness*, rude*ness ;* art*ful*, dire*ful*, grace*ful*, grate*ful*, peace*ful ;* arm*less*, art*less*, cheer*less*, motion*less*, resist*less*, use*less*, view*less* ;

humour*some*, juic*y*, false*hood*, subscrib*er*, martyr*dom*, sureti*ship*, monk*ish*.

English words with Classical endings :—shepherd*ess*, songst*ress*, wondr*ous*, witt*icism*, further*ance*, behavi*our*, withdraw*al*, bear*able*.

31. IV. Most words with distinctive English prefixes are of home make.

Some of the prefixes, however, are ambiguous. Thus 'a' and 'in' are English, Latin, and Greek ; 'mis' is English and Latin. But where there is no ambiguity, we may presume that an English prefix betokens an English word, and a classical prefix a classical word.

The unmistakable English prefixes are : 'al', 'after', 'be', 'for', 'ful', 'on', 'over', 'out', 'under', 'up', 'with'.

When we find words commencing with the prefixes 'circum', 'contra', 'extra', 'inter', 'ob', 'omni', 'præ', 'pro', 're', 'retro', 'super', we may almost always take for granted that they are of Latin origin : when we find 'cata', 'epi', 'hyper', 'hypo', 'pan', 'peri', 'sym', we may infer a Greek origin. Some of these are in hardly any case joined with English roots.

There are a good many exceptions, or hybrids. The following are a few :—because, belabour, besiege, out-face, prewarn, sublet, superfine, thorough-bass, thorough-paced, unchain, unjust.

When we meet with such compounds as 'grace*ful*', 'peace-*ful*', we ought also to take notice that these roots—'grace', 'peace', are far more frequently allied with classical prefixes and endings ; as 'gracious', 'ingratitude', 'ingratiate', 'gratify', 'pacify', 'appease'. If it is the habit of any word to contract classical alliances, we may presume that it is classical, unless it is recognised as a hybrid.

32. V. Most words of one syllable are native English or Teutonic.

The list of exceptions, that is to say, of words of one syllable derived from the Latin, French, or Greek, is given in the Appendix IV.

33. VI. Most words of more than one syllable are of classical origin.

The words of more than one syllable of native origin almost all occur in the following illustrations of the things denoted by native names. (§§ 35 and following.) A few not otherwise

mentioned are here subjoined :—behalf, behest, biestings, brustle, caltrop, chafer, commark (a frontier), dimple, dwindle, harbinger, hobnob, holster, nether, slobber, snattock, staddle, utter.

34. VII. Provincial terms are to be assumed as not of classical origin.

If not English, they are either Keltic or Teutonic.

35. The things denoted by native terms are to a great extent distinct from those denoted by names of classical origin.

36. I. From native sources we obtain the names connected with kindred, home, domestic life, and the strong natural feelings and their expression :—

father	gaffer	swaddle	pillow	midwife
mother	gammer	kettle	bolster	mingle
husband	home	bellows	bundle	naked
wife	hearth	kitchen	slumber	early
friend	roof	oven	taper	morrow
kindred	fireside	hovel	marrow	errand
leman (sweet-	shelter	threshold	tidbit	sunder
heart)	ashes	tongs	wallet	bottom
widow	embers	ladle	wassail	lumber
neighbour	smoulder	flagon	fiddle	besom
henchman	bed	ewer	welcome	gossip
carle	cradle	bucket	token	riddle

attire :

hat	tippet	drawers	weeds
shirt	breeches	stockings	shoes

feelings :

harm (lit. *grief*)	wonder	smile	groan
hunger	weary	blain	weep
sorrow	bitter	blush	yearn
anger	tear	laugh	burden

37. II. From the same source are derived the names of the familiar objects of sense, and the familiar movements of moving things :—

Natural Objects, &c., Plants and Animals :

sun	morass	hollyhock	godwit
moon	stream	ivy	goose
star	land	kernel	hen
welkin	sea	linden	herring
world	billow	medlar	hornet
fire	eddy	misletoe	laverock
water	earth	mugwort	linnet
day	dingle	nettle	lobster
night	mildew	poppy	louse
morn	brimstone	sallow	maggot
even	iron	sorrel	marten
twilight	silver	teasel	mouldwarp (a mole)
light	pearl	thistle	mouse
heat	pebble	turnip	otter
cold	acorn	walnut	ousel (a blackbird)
rain	aspen	willow	owlet
snow	apple	yarrow	oyster
storm	barley	adder	peacock
wind	berry	barnacle	periwinkle (whelk)
thaw	bramble	beaver	raven
frost	blade	beetle	reindeer
cloud	blossom	chafer	ruddock (a redbreast)
shower	briar	chicken	sparrow
thunder	bristle	cockle	starling
lightning	cluster	culver (a dove)	swallow
weather	daisy	duck	tadpole
summer	elder	emmet	throstle (the thrush)
winter	elm	eyry	turtle
harvest	fennel	feather	weasel
hill	hemlock	fish	weevil (an insect)
dale	honey	fowl	whelk
wood	holly	fox	worm

Names of *parts of the body* :

body	whiskers	elbow	sinew
head	throat	finger	shank
ear	lungs	knuckle	pimple
eye	weasand (the	midriff	wrinkle
tongue	windpipe)	liver	tetter (a scab)
neck	bosom	navel	sight
lip	nipple	belly	touch
chin	heel	bladder	taste
limb	ham	thumb	heart
hair	hand	ankle	smell
nail	shoulder	bone	flesh

Familiar actions :

answer	hearken	fly	straddle
behave	hinder	swim	straggle
bluster	leap	creep	swallow
burrow	learn	crawl	trundle
clip	linger	hobble	tumble
defile	listen	follow	twinkle (with
elope	rimple	bellow	the eyes)
fall	rinse	hollo	wander
fell	rumple	jabber	welter
fold	sit	snivel	wheeze
gather	stand	stammer	whiff
gibber	lie	whisper	whimper
giggle	walk	whig	whip
glisten	run	whoop	whir
glitter	leap	scatter	whirl
gripe	stagger	scuffle	whisk
grope	stride	shuffle	whittle
handle	yawn	smother	worry
hang	gape	spatter	wrangle
harry	wink	sprinkle	wrestle

Obvious qualities :

barren	callow	gnarled	lukewarm
black	comely	grisly	narrow
blue	dingy	grim	pretty
brinded (streaked)	dwindle	handsome	rough
brittle	even	hard	sallow
broad	garish	heavy	uncouth
buxom	ghastly	lean	white

A few of the mental habits and characteristics :

bold	earnest	greedy	silly
busy	fickle	haggard	sulky
chary	frolic	idle	surly
cunning	froward	leasing (lies)	stalwart
dizzy	fulsome	merry	wheedle
doughty	giddy	nimble	wicked

But for states of the mind that have not a strong outward expression, the native vocabulary is very scantily supplied; such as the various modes of thought and intelligence. 'Think', 'mind', 'believe', 'trust', and a few others are to be found, but the great mass of words for the mental operations are of classical origin.

This rule may be otherwise expressed by saying that the names of the **objective** world are, by preference, **native**; of the **subjective** world, by preference, **classical**.

38. III. The kinds of Industry practised by our ancestors are shown by the names that have come down to us.

Thus in *agriculture* and its allied operations :

acre	farm	hedge	sickle
bacon	farrow (litter	heifer	sow (n. and v.)
barm	of pigs)	hen	steer
barn	fen	horse	stirrup
barrow	fern	hurdle	tallow
boar	field	loaf	tame
braird	fodder	mare	thrash
bread	furrow	mattock	twibill
bridle	gander	meadow	udder
bull	garlic	nettle	waggon
calf	goose	orchard	wattle
clover	grass	ox	weed
cock	grow	pig	wether
corn	halter	plough	wheat
cow	harrow	rat	whelp
cud	haulm	reap	whey
ear (v and n)	haw	runner	winnow
fallow	hay	saddle	wither

In the *other industrial arts :*

addice (adze)	ferry	needle	staple
angle (to fish)	furlong	oakum	swivel
anvil	habergeon	peat	target
arrow	hammer	pier	timber
board	harbour	raddle (to twist)	tower
boat	haven	riddle (sieve)	turf
coal	hauberk	scavenger	wear
cobble (a boat)	ladder	sempster	weave
distaff	leather	shackle	web
earn	level	shuttle	wharf
fathom	madder	slaughter	wheel
elly	nail	shambles	whittle

Bearing more particularly upon *trade and commerce :* borrow, buy, chapman, cheap, dear, firkin, handsel, market, monger, farthing, pedlar, penny, shilling, reckon, sell.

39. IV. The civil and religious Institutions of our ancestors are indicated in their language :

alderman	bury	fetter	hustings
beadle	corsnead (in trial	fiend	lady
bode	by ordeal)	gallows	lord
borough	earl	hamlet	murder

ordeal	Friday	heathen	whitsuntide
sheriff	Saturday	heaven	witch
Sunday	easter	king	witness
Monday	gospel	lammas	worship
Tuesday	hallow	steeple	yeoman
Wednesday	holy	steward	wapentake
Thursday	holiday	thrall	queen

40. V. National Proverbs are naturally expressed in words derived from our primitive speech.

41. VI. The language of **invective, contempt, pleasantry, humour, satire,** and **colloquial wit** is home made.

The strong terms, 'curse', 'darling', 'dastard', 'fangle', 'lazy', 'nidget' (a coward), 'rascal', 'shabby', 'slut', 'sly', 'ugly', are of native growth.

42. VII. The particular or individual objects of nature, as opposed to the *general or abstract*, are named by native words.

This is merely the second rule in another aspect. Thus the *specific* movements, 'creep', 'fly', 'run', 'walk', &c., are English; but the *general* idea is expressed by a Latin word— 'motion'. 'Black', 'blue', 'green', 'red', 'yellow', &c., are English: 'colour' is Latin. 'Buzz', 'growl', 'grunt', 'hiss', 'hum', 'roar', 'rustle', 'sing', 'speak', 'squeak', 'whistle', &c., are English: 'sound is Latin. So while specific modes of wrongdoing are English—'kill', 'lie', 'murder', 'rob', 'theft', the general terms—'crime', 'injury', 'offence', are Latin. The special numbers are English: the general word 'number' is Latin.

43. These rules must be taken with some latitude, and are not to be employed as absolutely decisive of the origin of any given word.

For although the more familiar objects of sense and of the outer world are described by English names, we have appropriated classical names to add to our means of expressing the same things ; as 'animal', 'beast', 'chapel', 'commerce', 'country', 'district', 'face', 'family', 'firmament', 'forest', 'furniture', 'garment', 'lake', 'minute', 'mountain', 'mutton', 'palace', 'people', 'plain', 'river', 'season', 'serpent', 'stomach', and innumerable others.

44. Foreign names came in with foreign objects or facts.

It has been seen that when articles or occupations were imported from other nations, the names, as was to be expected, came too.

45. Native words are seldom general.

A few of our own Saxon words have been employed as terms of the highest generality; as 'being', 'well-being', 'truth', 'falsehood', 'will', 'feeling', 'good', 'evil', 'right', 'wrong'.

This, however, is rare. We might, like the Germans, have constrained our native vocabulary to serve for general and abstract terms, but we have preferred to derive these from the classical sources. We also in many instances use a native word and also the corresponding words in Greek and Latin : 'good', 'moral', 'ethical'; 'one', 'unit', 'monad'; 'truth', 'principle', 'axiom'; 'happiness', 'felicity;' 'glue', 'viscid', 'colloid'.

In all such cases the Latin and Greek words serve to indicate new meanings or shades of meaning, thereby extending our vocabulary. The use of a different word is always accompanied with the tendency to restrict its application to some particular phase of the general idea.

COMPOSITION OF WORDS.

1. Most of the words of the language are compounds, **The process of composition** takes place in **two ways :** first, *by adding to the simple words syllables or words,* called prefixes, and suffixes or endings, *which may or may not have an independent existence;* as '*out*-run', 'one-*ly*' (only); and secondly, *by putting together words that have each an independent meaning ;* as 'break-water', 'lion-hunter'.

As regards the first process, there are a number of recognised prefixes and suffixes habitually employed in forming compound words, nearly all of them imparting a definite signification to the compounds.

Prefixes.

2. English Prefixes.—The prefixes of native origin used for all purposes may be enumerated as follows :—

a. (1) A shortened form of the preposition 'on', 'an': '*a*back, *a*bed, afield, *a*foot, alive, aside, ashore, away'.

The full form remains in '*an*ent', '*an*on', '*an*vil'.

The other cases are much less important.

(2) **a** (Gothic *us*), 'out of', 'from', 'away', 'up': '*a*ghast, *a*go, *a*light, arise, arouse, awake'. The force of this prefix naturally becomes merely intensive.

(3) **a**, O. E. *a* ('ever', 'always', '*aye*'): '*a*ught' (=*a-wiht*). This *a*- is now disguised in 'each', 'either', 'ever', 'one'. 'Ought' (not the verb) is the same word as 'aught'.

(4) **a** = O. E. *ge*, *y*, *i*: '*a*fford, *a*like, *a*long (of), among, enough (*enough*), aware'. 'Alike' and 'among' were also influenced by 'on' ('an', 'a': **a** (1).). The *ge* of the past part. was often modified to *a*- ; still a not uncommon provincialism.

(5) **a** (older *and*), 'back': '*a*bide, *a*cknowledge, *a*gain, against, along'. The older form remains less abridged in '*an*swer' and '*am*bassador'.

(6) **a**, shortened for *æt*, 'at': '*a*gaze'. 'Afore' may be either O. E. '*æt*foran' or '*on*foran'.

'At' before the infinitive appears in '*a*do'. (Compare 'affair', § 4, under **ad**).

(7) **a**, shortened from *of*, *af*, 'off', 'from': '*a*down (O. E. *of dune*, 'from the down or hill'), afar (=*of feor*), *a*kin, *a*new'.

In a few words, it is intensive, = 'very', 'exceedingly': '*a*cold, *a*hungered, ashamed, athirst, aweary'.

after: 'afternoon', 'afterthought'.

all (all): 'almighty', 'alone', 'although', 'always'. It is obscured in '*as*' (*al-so*).

at, the preposition: '*a*tone'.

The -*t* falls away in a few cases; see **a** (6), above. The *a*- is dropt in 'twit', (O. E. *ætwitan*, 'to reproach'; lit. *to know* (*witan*) something *against* (*æt*)).

be, by, the prep. 'by', taken as such, or used adverbially.

1. In Nouns. '*Be*half, behest, behoof'; oftenest, however, in the form 'by',—'*by*-name, bystander, byword'.

'*By*-law', or '*bye*-law', is connected by some with the Scandinavian *by* ('hamlet'): a law made by a hamlet or township for the regulation of its own affairs.

2. In Verbs, 'be' retains much of its original force: 'around, about, over, upon, to'; and generally expresses the fact of

communicating to an object the prominent qualities indicated by the other part of the compound.

(1) *Be* + noun : '*be*cloud, bedew, befriend, betroth', &c.,—all transitive.

In one, '*be*head', *be* has privative force.

(2) *Be* + adjective : '*be*calm, bedim'.

(3) *Be* + verb.   With transitive verbs, the sense of *be* = 'about', 'over', 'upon', is sometimes very distinct, and always to some degree intensive : '*be*daub, begird, beset, besmear, besprinkle ; behold, beseech, bestir, bestow, dedeck, dedazzle'. The meaning of the new verb is also transitive.—With intransitive verbs, '*be*' still maintains the same sense, and sometimes renders the new verb transitive : '*be*moan, bespeak, bestride, bethink'.   At other times, it signifies more pointedly direction towards an end, and the new verb then often remains intransitive : '*be*come, befall, behove, belong, betake, betide '.

3. In Adverbs (sometimes becoming prepositions or conjunctions) : '*be*cause, before, behind, betimes, between '.

Bul (large) : '*bul*rush '.

For (O. E. *for-* : cp. German *ver*, Lat. *per* and *pro*), 'through, thoroughly ', intensive ; then the contrary, ' wrongness, perversion, privation, prohibition '.

Prefixed to verbs : '*for*bear, forbid, for(e)fend, forget, forgive, for(e)go, forlorn, forsake, forswear '.

This prefix is at bottom the same word as the following, 'fore'.

Fore (O. E. *fore* : cp. Germ. *vor*, Lat. *pro* and *præ*) : before, in front, previous.

Nouns : '*fore*ground, forehead ; *fore*noon '.

Verbs : '*fore*bode, foreordain, foresee, forewarn '.

Forth : '*forth*coming '.

Ful (full) : '*ful*fill ; full-blown, fullgrown '.

Gain (back, against) : '*gain*say '.

In, im (in, into, within) : '*in*born, inbred, income, inland, inlay, inside, insight ' ; '*im*bed, imbitter, imbody, imbrown, imbrue '.

'In, im ' has sometimes given place to the Romance *en, em* : '*en*dear, enkindle, enliven, enshroud, entangle, entrust, entwine ' ; '*em*bed, embitter, embody, embolden, embosom, embower '.

The force of the prefix is frequently intensive, sometimes perhaps (though not necessarily) causative.

Mis (wrong, ill, failure) : '*mis*behave, misgive, mislay, mislead, misname, mistrust ; misdeed '.

' Mis ' is joined at will to words of classical origin : '*mis*apply, miscall, miscount, misinterpret, misplace '.

But in certain apparent cases of this nature, the 'mis ' is really of classical origin.   (See § 4, under **mis**).

Ne (not) : '*n*aught, nought, not, nay, neither, never, none, nor'.

Off : 'offal (=*off*-fall), offset, offshoot, offspring'. See modified forms under **a** (7), above.

On : '*on*looker, onset, onslaught'.
For modified forms see **a** (1), above ; and **un** (3), below.

Out (O.E. *ut*), opposite to 'in' ; 'beyond, excelling'. '*Out*-break, outcast, outfit, outpour, outside, outhouse ; *out*door, outlaw ; *out*spread, *out*stretch ; *out*bid, outdo, outlast, outlive, outrun, outvote'.

Over (O.E. *ofer*), 'above, beyond, excess, down'. '*Over*-arch, overflow, overhang, overlap ; *over*hear, oversight ; *over*board ; *over*coat ; *over*due, overwise ; *over*draw, over-estimate, overload, overwork ; *over*bear, overthrow, overturn'.

Thorough, 'from side to side ; completely'. '*Thorough*-fare ; *thorough*bred, thoroughpaced'.

To (the, this) ; '*to*-day, to-morrow, to-night'.
To (the prep.) : '*together*'.
To (Germ. *zer*, Lat. *dis*). 'asunder, in pieces', was very common in O.E. 'A certain woman cast a piece of millstone upon Abimelech's head, and *all to brake* his skull' (*Judges* ix. 53) : '*all* (=altogether, quite) *to* (in pieces) *brake*', &c.

Twi (two) : '*twi*light'.

Un. (1) (O.E. *on*-, Gothic *and*-, Germ. *ent*-), 'back ; reversal of an action'.
'*Un*bind, undo, unfold, unhand, unhorse, unlearn, unsay'. With verbs of classical origin, freely : '*un*fix, unnerve, un-people, untune, unyoke'.
In '*un*loose', the prefix is intensive (='back', 'away'), 'loose' itself implying reversal. (Cp. the cases where *and*-, *on*, has become *a ;* above, **a** (5).).

Un. (2) (O.E. *un*), not. Nouns : '*un*belief, unreason, unrest, untruth, unwisdom'.
Adjectives : '*un*fair, unwise, unknown, unseen'.
Un. (3) (on) : '*un*less, until, unto'.

Under, below ; too little or deficiency ; support. '*Under*-current, undergrowth ; *under*ground ; *under*estimate, *under*sell ; *under*hand ; *under*go, understand, undertake'.

Up : '*up*heave, uphold, uplift, uproot ; *up*roar, upshot, up-start ; *up*hill ; *up*land'. '*Up*braid'.

Wan (root of 'wan, wane, want', &c.), wanting. Cp. *un*.
Our only remaining example is '*wan*ton' = *wan-towen* or *-togen*, 'untrained, undisciplined, wild', from *teon* (draw, lead). There were many in O.E. : '*wan*hal' (unhealthy) ; '*wan*hope' (*unhope*, despair).

Wel, well : *wel*fare, well-being, well-bred'.

With (against, back; opposition): *with*draw, withhold, withstand '.

Sometimes a letter has been prefixed for greater ease or fulness of pronunciation, especially *s :* ' *s*cratch, scream, skip, smelt, sneeze, snip, splash, squabble, squash, squeamish, squeeze, swear, sword '.

On the other hand, a letter is sometimes dropt. *Gif* is now ' if '; *genoh* has become ' enough ', *gelic*, ' alike ' (see **a** (4)), and *ge*- has disappeared from past participles. Similarly, initial *g* and *k*, though written, are not pronounced before *n :* ' *g*narl, *k*nee '. Compare also ' *k*nit ' and ' net ', ' *k*not ' and ' node '. Initial *h*, while often silent before a vowel, has fallen away before *l, n, r :* ' laugh (O.E. ' *h*lihhan '), lord (O.E. ' *h*laford '), loud (*h*lud); neck (*h*necca) ; raven (*h*ræfn), rough (*h*reoh), ring (*h*ring), ridge (*h*rycg) '. So, ' it ' was formerly ' *h*it ', and ' ostler ' was ' *h*ostler '. Initial *w* is not used now before *l :* ' (*w*)lisp ' ; and it is not pronounced before *r :* ' *w*reck, *w*rite '.

' Orange ' dropt initial *n* from a mistaken association with Lat. *aurum* (gold). In other cases there has been a transference of *n* to or from the article : ' an *n*adder ' is now ' an adder ' ; ' a nap(e)ron ' is ' an apron ' ; while ' an ewt ' has become ' a newt ', and ' an ouch ', ' a *n*ouch '. ' A *n*ag ' may be for ' an ag ' (cp. Lat. *equus*).

3. Classical Prefixes.—There are a number of prefixes derived from the classical languages. Such of them as are still employed to form new compounds may be considered English prefixes; as ' ante ' in ' antedate '.

Some of the Latin and Greek prefixes and suffixes are known only as parts of the words that they are found in, and we never think of their separate meaning, nor employ them to make new combinations. Such are the Greek ' a ' in ' atrophy ', ' anarchy '; ' cata ' in ' catastrophe ', and many others. A good many of the Latin prefixes and suffixes, and a small number of the Greek, may be regarded as of living application, being adopted in their separate character into the English language.

4. The following Prefixes are from the **Latin**. Many of the secondary forms are due to **French** influence.

ab, a, abs (from, away from) : ' *ab*ject, abhor, abolish, abound, absolve, absorb, abuse ; *a*manuensis, avert, avocation, avoid ; *abs*cess, abscond, absent, abstract '.

The prefix is disguised in ‘*adv*ance, *adv*antage, *av*aunt, van’
—all through Fr. *avant* (Lat. *ab* + *ante*).
Compare ‘*a*bridge’ and ‘*ab*breviate’, the first through Fr.
abréger, the other direct, from Lat. *abbreviare*. ‘*As*soilzie’, in
Scots law, comes through Fr. from Lat *ab-solvere*.

ad, a, Fr. **à** (to), with numerous assimilations—**ac, af, ag,
al, an, ap, ar, as, at** : ‘*ad*dress, adhere, admit, adore,
adulation, adverse (*ad*, here, = ‘to’ in hostile sense, ‘against’),
advert ; *a*bandon, adroit, agree, *a*-l-loy (Fr. *à la loi*), amass,
ascend, apart, avalanche, avenue ; *ac*cede, acclaim, account,
acquit ; *a*-f-fair (Fr. *à faire*), *af*fect, affirm, affront ; *ag*gravate,
aggrieve : *al*lege, allow, ally ; *an*nihilate, annul ; *ap*pal,
apparel, approve ; *ar*biter, arrange, arrear ; *as*certain, assent,
assist ; *at*tempt, attract’.

‘*A*-l-arm’, ‘*a*-l-ert’ are from Ital., through Fr. ‘Aid’ is
Lat. *adjutare*. New formations : ‘*ad*measurement, *at*tune’.
The prefix has been dropt in ‘raiment, size, cess (assess)’.

ambi, amb, am, an (both, on both or all sides) : ‘*amb*ient,
ambiguous, ambition, ambulance, amputate, ancipital ’.

ante (before) : ‘*ante*cedent, antedate, anteroom ’.

‘*Anti*cipate’ must not be referred to the Greek prefix ‘anti’:
it brought the *i* from the Lat. ‘Ante’ is at the root of
‘anterior, antique, antic ; ancient ’.

bene (well) : ‘*bene*fit, benevolent, benign ’.

bi, bis, bini (twice, two by two) : ‘*bi*ennial, bifurcate, bisect,
bivalve ; *bis*cuit, bissextile ; *bin*ocular ’. New compounds.

‘*Pimpernel*’ is a curious corruption : Fr. *pimprenelle*, Ital.
pimpinella, low Lat. *bipinnella*, from *bipennis*, ‘two-winged’,
‘double-leaved’.

circum, circu (about, round) : ‘*circum*cise, circumlocution,
circumscribe ; *circu*it ’. New compounds.

com (Lat. *cum*, orig. *com*, ‘with, together’ ; often little
more than intensive) ; also as **col, con, cor**, and **co** : ‘*com*bat,
combine, commit, compound ; *col*lapse, colleague, collide ;
*con*cede, concede, concentrate, concur, condemn, consanguineous,
contract, correct, corrupt ; *cog*nate, cognition, co-operate, co-
ordinate, co-partner, covenant’. New formations abundant,
especially with *co* : ‘commingle, compatriot ; correspond,
correlate ; co-pastor, co-tenant, co-worker ’, &c.

The prefix is further modified, or even obscured, in a few
words : cogent (Lat. *co-agent-*), cost (O. Fr. *couster*, Ital.
costare, Lat. *constare*), costive (Ital. *costipativo*, Lat. *constipare*),
costume (through Fr. and Ital., from Lat. *consuetudinem*), couch
(Fr. *coucher*, O. Fr. *colcher*, Lat. *collocare*), council, counsel,
count (verb : O. Fr. *conter*, Lat. *computare*), count (noun, title :
Fr. *comte*, Lat. *comitem*, from *com-itum*, ‘go with ’), countenance,

couple and copula (*co-* root *ap*, to join), cousin (Fr., from Lat. *consobrinus*), cover (Fr. *couvrir*, Lat. *co-operire*), cull (Fr. *cueillir*, Lat. *colli jere*), curry (Fr. *corroyer*, Ital. *corredare* ; root *red* = prepare, make 'ready',) custom (Fr. *coutume*, Ital. and Lat. *costuma*, from Lat. *consuetudinem*), quail (Ital. *quagliare*, Fr. *cailler*, O. Fr. *coailler*, Lat. *coagulare*), quaint (Fr. *coint*, Lat. *comptus*).

contra, contro, N. Fr. **counter** (Lat. *contra*, from *con* ; Fr. *contre*, 'against') : '*contra*dict, *contra*st ; *contro*versy ; *counter*feit, *counter*mand '.

New formations : '*contra*band, *contra*distinguish, contravene ; *contro*vert ; *counter*act, counterbalance, counterpoise, -scarp, -sign, -vail', &c.

Hence 'contrary'. 'Counter' is used as an independent adv. and adj. 'Country' is 'the land opposite you,' Fr. *contrée*, Lat. *contrata*. Compare Germ. *gegend* from *gegen*. 'Country-dance' is a corruption of Fr. '*contre*-danse' (the partners being ranged in lines *facing each other*). 'Control', Fr. *contrôle*, = *contre-rôle*, 'counter roll'.

de (down, away, from) : '*de*cay, declare, deduct, deject, delegate, deny, descend'. While often merely intensive, it sometimes indicates deficiency or reverses the root meaning : '*de*pletion, de*population, demented'.

A large number of words derive initial *de-* from 'dis' (French *des, dé, de*), which is merely another form 'de'. '*De*bonair' and '*de*mure' contain 'de' as preposition.

New compounds are common : '*de*base, decipher, decompound, default, denationalise', &c. ; and in technical words like '*de*carbonise, deodorize', &c.

demi (Fr. ; Lat. *dimidium*, half) : '*demi*god'.

di, dis, Fr. **des, dé** (asunder, in two), with assimilation to **dif-** : '*di*gress, diligent, dilute, diverge ; *dis*believe, disfavour, dislike, dismember, disloyal, disturb ; *dif*fer, difficult.

*Des*cant, descry, deshabille, despatch.

*De*fer, defy, delay (Lat. *dilatum*), deluge (Lat. *diluvium*), &c.

' *Di*rge ' is a contraction of Lat. *dirige*. New compounds are abundant, with native as well as with classical roots : '*di*lacerate, dipetalous ; *di*sable, disabuse, disadvantage, dishonour, disrespect, distrust ', &c.

ec, e, ex, O. Fr. **es, (e)s** (from, out of ; exceeding ; reversal of action), with assimilation to **ef-** : '*ec*centric ; *e*dit, educate, egregious, elect, eminent, enormous (*out of, beyond* rule or measure), emerge (opp. of 'merge', lit. plunge *out*') ; *ex*act, exasperate, exceed, exculpate, express ; *ef*ficient, effete, effigy '.

Less obvious cases : *es*cape, escheat, *es*say, *is*sue ; sample, scarce, scorch, (Fr. *escorcher* (*écorcher*), Lat. *excorticare*, from

corticem, 'bark'), scourge (Fr. *escourgée*, Lat. *excorrigiata*), soar (Fr. *essorer*, Lat. *ex-aurare*, from *aura*); *a*bash (Fr. *esbahir*), afraid (Fr. *effrayer*, 'terrify', Lat. *exfrigidare*), amend ('emend'), *a*ward (*eswarder*, 'look at'), *a*stonish (O. Fr. *estonner*, Lat. *extonare*), *a*ssay (= 'essay', Fr. *essai*, Lat. *exagium*).

New compounds are especially frequent to express *past office* : '*ex*-emperor, ex-mayor', &c.

equi, equ (equal) : '*equi*angular, equilibrium, equinox, equipoise, equivalent ; *equanimity*'.

extra (from *ex*: without, beyond) : '*extra*judicial, extramural, extraordinary ; *extra*-charge'.

'Extra' forms 'extraneous', and 'strange'.

for (Lat. *foris, for-*, out of doors, out) : '*for*ceps, forfeit'.

in (1), (not : comp. *un* (2), with which it is frequently interchanged), with modifications to **i, il, im, ir** : '*in*action, indiscipline, infant, injustice, *in*active, infirm, inhuman ; *i*gnoble, ignominy, ignore ; *il*legal, illiberal ; *im*maculate, impiety, impure ; *ir*rational, irregular, irresponsible'.

'*En*emy' is Fr. *ennemi*, Lat. *inimicus* (*in, amicus*).

Compare '*in*ability' and '*un*able', '*in*fidelity' and '*un*faithful', '*in*justice' and '*un*just', '*in*certitude' and *un*certainty', &c. New formations are abundant.

in (2), Fr. **en, em** (in, into, upon), with assimilations to **il, im, ir** : '*in*come, increase, incur, induce, infer, innate ; *il*lusion, illumine ; *im*becile, immerse, impair, import, imprison ; *ir*radiate, irrigate ; *en*amel, encage, enclose, engrave ; *em*bark, embower, embroil, employ'.

A good many words have *in*- or *en*- ; as '*in*quire' or '*en*quire'. 'Censer' and 'print' want the prefix : comp. '*in*cense' and '*im*print'. Disguised forms are : *am*bush (Fr. *embûche*, Ital. *im*boscare, from *im*, 'in', *bosco*, 'bush, wood'), *an*noy (Ital. *an*noiare, Fr. *ennuyer*, Lat. *in-odio*), *an*oint (Fr. *en*-oindre, Lat. *in-unct*-). New formations are abundant.

inter, O. Fr. **enter,** (from *in*: between, among), with assimilation to **intel** : '*inter*cede, interdict, intermarry, interval ; *intel*lect, intelligent ; *enter*prise, entertain'.

intro (from *in*: within, into the inside) : '*intro*duce, intromit, introspection'.

juxta (near to, close by) : '*juxta*position'.

magni, magn- (great) : '*magni*loquent ; *magn*animous'.

male, mal (badly, ill) : '*male*factor, *mal*treat'; and new compounds.

'*Mau*gre' (in spite of) is Fr. *malgré* = Lat. *male-gratum*, 'disagreeable'; '*mal*ady' is from Fr. *malade*, 'ill', from Lat. *male-aptus*.

manu, mani, man, Fr. **main, man** (Lat. *manus*, hand):
'*manu*facture, manumit, manuscript ; *mani*fest, manipulate ;
*man*date ; *main*tain ; *man*œuvre, another form of which, with
another sense, is '*man*ure '.

medi (mid, middle): '*medi*æval, mediterranean '.

'*Meri*dian ' is commonly accepted as from *medius-dies* (mid-
day).

mis, O. F. **mes** (Lat. *minus :* less, not, wrongness): '*mis*-
adventure, mischance, mischief, miscreant '.   It has practically
the same effect as the English 'mis '.

ne, nec (not), only in Latin compounds : '*nef*arious,
*nes*cience, *neu*tral ; *nega*tion, *negl*igent, *neg*otiate '.

non (not ; = ne + *œnum, unum*, 'not one thing ') is very
useful in new formations : '*non*age ; *non*entity, nonsense ;
non-political, non-resistance '.

ob, o, o(b)s, with assimilations **oc, of, op** (to, towards,
upon ; in the way of ; against, down, away) comes to us in
Latin compounds : '*ob*durate, obey, object ; *o*mit ; *os*tensible ;
*oc*casion, *oc*cur, *of*fend, offer ; *op*portune, oppress '.

'*Off*ice ' (Lat. *officium, opi-ficium*, 'help-making ') is some-
times wrongly given as from 'ob '.

pen (Fr. ; Lat. *pœne*, almost): '*pen*insula, penultimate,
penumbra '.

per, Fr. **par** (through ; thoroughly) : '*per*ceive, perdition,
perennial, perplex, pervert ; *par*amour, pardon '.   New
formations are common : '*per*adventure, perchance, perdurable,
peroxide ', &c.

'*Pell*ucid ' is an assimilation.   '*Pil*grim ' is for Pro-
vençal *pelegrin*, Ital. *pellegrino*, Lat. *per*-grinus.   Compare
'*app*ertain ' and '*pur*tenance ', 'appurtenance ' (Fr. 'appar-
tenance ').   '*Pierce* ' is a great contraction ; Fr. *percer*, Ital.
pertugiare, Lat. *per-tusum* (-*tundere*).

post ('after ' ; in place, and chiefly in time) : '*pos*tdate,
postfix, post-obit, post-prandial '.

'*Puny* ' ('*Puisne* ' (judges) preserves the older and fuller
form) = Fr. *puiné* = *puis-né*, Lat. *post-natus*.

pre, Lat. **præ**, Fr. **pré :** before ; superiority, &c.) : '*pre*-
caution, precede, precipice, precise, pre-existence, prefer,
preordain, presence, prevail '.   New compounds are numerous.

O. Fr. *precher* (Lat. *prædicare*) gives '*preach* '.   '*Provost* '
is Fr. *prévôt*, Lat. *præpositus*.   '*Provender* ' is Fr. *provende*,
Lat. *præ-benda*.

preter (Fr. *préter*, Lat. *præter*, from *prae :* past, beyond) :
'*preter*ite, pretermit, preternatural '.

pro, pol, por, pur (Lat. *pro*, Fr. *pour, por*, same root as
præ; before, forwards, forth ; in place of, *for :* comp. English

'fore', 'for') : '*pro*ceed, *pro*fess, *pro*ject, *pro*pound ; *pro*consul, *pro*noun ; *pol*lute ; *por*tend, *por*trait ; *pur*chase, *pur*sue; *pur*vey '.

Contractions are : *pro*mpt, *proc*tor (= procurator), *prox*y, (= procuracy), *pro*se (Lat. *prosa*, = *pro-versa*), *pru*dent (Lat. *prudens*, = *pro-videns*, *pru*ne (Fr. *provigner*, Lat. *pro-pagare*).

quasi (as if ; of similar or analogous character) : '*quasi*-contract, quasi-intuition '.

re, re-d (back ; again ; against ; reversal or negation of root meaning) : '*re*ceive, *re*commend, *re*consider ; *re*claim, *re*luctant, *re*sist ; *re*prove, *re*veal ; *re*-deem, *re*dound, *re*dundant '. New compounds are formed at will.

Less obvious cases are : '*r*ally ' (Lat. *re-alligare*), '*r*ampart' (Fr. *rempart*, from *se r-emparer*, 'intrench ourself '), '*r*ansom ' (Fr. *rançon*' Lat. *redemptionem*), '*r*emnant ' (comp. '*r*emain '), '*r*encounter ', '*r*ender ' (Fr. *rendre*, Lat. *reddere*), '*r*ent ', '*r*est ', '*r*use ' (Fr. '*ruser*, *reuser*, *reüser*, Lat. *recusare*).

retro (from *re* : backwards) : '*retro*cession, *retro*grade, *retro*spect '.

The Fr. form *rière* gives 'rear ' : '*rear*guard ', &c.

se, se-d (apart, away) : '*se*clude, *se*cure, *se*lect, *se*parate, *se*ver (Fr. *sevrer*, Lat. *separāre*), *se*veral ; *se-d*-ition '.

According to one conjecture, 'sober ' (Lat. *sobrius*) is from *se-ebrius*, 'not drunk '. 'Sure ' is a Fr. contraction (*seür*, *seur*, *sûr*) of Lat. *securus* (secure).

semi (half) : '*semi*circle, semitone '. '*Sin*ciput ' is from *semi-caput*.

sine (later form for *se*, *sed* : without) : '*sine*cure '. Most probably 'sincere ' is not connected with 'sine '.

sub, Fr. **sou**, **so** (*sé*) (under ; from below ; inferiority), with numerous assimilations, **suc, suf, sug, sum, sup, sur, sus** : *sub*altern, *sub*lime, *sub*merge, *sub*soil, *sub*vert ; *suc*ceed, *suc*cumb ; *suf*fix, *suf*fuse ; *sug*gest ; *sum*mon ; *sup*plant, *sup*ple, *sup*port ; *sur*rogate ; *sus*ceptible, *sus*pend, *sus*tain ; *sou*venir, *so*journ (Fr. *séjourner*, Ital. *soggiornare*, Lat. *sub-diurnare*). New formations are abundant.

'*Sub*tile' (shortened '*sub*tle'), Lat. *subtilis* = *sub-texilis*, 'finely woven '. '*Som*bre ', Fr., from Lat. *sub-umbra*, 'under shade '. '*Sud*den ', Fr. *soudain*, Lat. *subitan(e)us*, *subitus*, *sub-itum* (eo), ' to go under, or stealthily '. ' Sumptuous ', from Lat. *sumptus* (expense), from *sumptum* (*sumo*), = *sub-emtum* (*emo*, 'take up '). ' *Su*pine ', Lat. *supinus*, from *sub*.

' Surge ', from Lat. *surgere* = *sur-rigere* (-regere) ; whence also 'source ', through French.

subter (from *sub* : under) : '*subter*fuge '.

super, Fr. **sur** (above, beyond, superiority, excess) : ' *super-* abundant, superadd, superintend, supernatural, supernumerary; surcharge, surface (cp. ' *superficial* '), surfeit, surmount, surtout '. New compounds are not uncommon.

Hence ' superb ' (Lat. *superbus*), ' superior ', ' supernal '. '. *Sirloin* ', Fr. *surlonge*, from *sur-longe*, ' over the loin '.

supra (from *super :* above) : ' *supra*mundane, supranatural- ist, suprarenal '.

Hence ' sovereign ' (Fr. *souverain*, Ital. *sovrano*), ' somer- sault, somerset, summerset ' (corruptions of Fr. *soubresaut*, Span. *sobresalto*, Lat. *supra-saltus*) ; and ' supreme ' (Lat. *supremus*).

trans, tran, tra, Fr. **tres, tra** (across, over, through, beyond): ' *transact*, transatlantic, transfer, transit, transship ; *tranquil*, transcend, transcribe, transom ; *tradition*, *traduce*, tramontane (as well as ' *trans*montane ': comp. ' *ultra*montane '); *trespass*, *traverse*, travesty '.

' Traitor ' (Fr. *traitre*, Lat. *traditor*), ' treachery ' (O. E. *trechour*, Prov. *trachar*, Lat. *tradere*), ' treason ' (O. Fr. *traison*, Fr. *trahison*, Lat. *traditionem*), may be compared with ' tradi- tion '.

' Trance ', or ' transe ', Fr. *transe*, Lat. *transitus*. ' Travel ' and ' travail ', from Fr. *travail* (orig. a break for vicious horses), from Lat. *trabaculum*, from *trabs* (a beam).

tri, tre ; ter- (Lat. *treis, tris, tres ; ter :* three, thrice) : ' *triangle*, *tribe*, tricolour, trident, triple, tripod, trivial ; *treble*, trefoil, trellis (Fr. *treillis*, Lat. *trilicem*, *tres-licium*, ' three- twilled ') ; *tercentenary* '. ' Trammel ' is Fr. *tra nail*, formerly *tremail*, from Lat. *tremaculum*, from *tres-macula*, ' three-mesh '.

From *terni, trini* (three by three) come ' ternary ', ' trinity '. **ultra** (beyond) : ' *ultra*liberal, ultramarine '.

' Outrage ' is Fr. ; O. Fr. *oultrage*, low Lat. *ultragium*.

un, uni (one) : ' *unanimous* ; *unicorn*, unison, universe '. Hence ' union, unique, unit, unite, unity, unitarian '.

veh, ve (negatives or reverses the root meaning) : ' *veh-e*- ment ' (lit. ' not reasonable ').

' Widow ', Lat. *vidua*, is generally given as from *ve* (without), *dhava* (husband) ; better, from root *-vid* (separate) in ' di*vide* ', &c.

vice, Fr. **vis** (in place of) : ' *vice*-admiral, vice-chairman, *vice*roy ; *vis*count '. New compounds are frequent.

Hence ' vicar '.

5. The following are the **Greek Prefixes :**—

amphi (both, on both sides : Lat. *amb*, O. E. *ymb*, *umbe*, Germ. *um*) : ' *amphi*bious, amphitheatre '.

an, a (negative: Lat. *in*, Engl. *un*): '*an*archy, *an*ecdote, *an*odyne, *an*onymous; *a*byss, *a*damant, *a*mnesty, *a*pathy, *a*sylum'.

ana (up, back, again): '*ana*baptist, *ana*chronism, *ana*glyph, *ana*lysis, *ana*tomy'.

anti (against): '*anti*dote, *anti*pathy; *ant*agonist'. '*Anthem*', O. E. *antefn, antem,* is the same word as '*anti*phon'.

New formations: *anti*pope, *anti*-slavery, &c.

apo (from, away: Lat. *ab*, Engl. *off*): '*apo*calypse, *apo*gee, *apo*logy, *apo*plexy, *apo*stasy, *apo*stle; *ap*helion, *ap*horism'.

arch (chief): '*arch*angel, *arch*bishop, *arch*itect'. New formations: *arch*-conspirator, *arch*-heretic, &c.

auto (self): '*auto*graph, *auto*nomy; *auth*entic'.

cata (down): '*cata*logue, *cata*rrh, *cata*strophe; *cat*aract, *cat*echise; *cath*edral, *cath*olic. '*Chair*' is Fr. *chaire*, Lat. and Gr. *cathedra*.

dia, di (through: connected with Lat. *dis, de*): '*dia*dem, *dia*gnosis, *dia*meter; *di*ocese, *di*orama'. Compare '*dia*conate', and '*deacon*' (Greek *diakonos*); '*dia*bolical' and '*devil*' (Gr. *diabolos*, O.E. *deofol*).

'*Diamond*' is an accidental similarity: Fr. *diamant*, Gr. *a-damant-* (see **an, a**).

di (two, twice): '*di*graph, *di*lemma, *dip*thong, *di*ploma, *di*stich'. '*Di-s-syllable*' should have only one *s*.

dys (hard, ill): '*dys*entery, *dis*pepsia'.

ec, ex (from, out of): '*ec*clesiastic, *ec*lectic, *ec*lipse, *ec*stasy; *ex*egesis, *ex*odus'.

en, em, el (Gr. *en*, in): '*en*cyclopædia, *en*demic, *en*ergy, *en*thusiasm; *em*blem, *em*bryo, *em*phasis, *em*porium; *el*lipse'.

epi, ep (upon): '*epi*demic, *epi*gram, *epi*scopal, *epi*stle, *epi*taph; *eph*emeral'.

eu (well): '*eu*charist, *eu*logy, *eu*thanasia'.

The *v* in '*evangel*-ic, -ical, -ist', &c., is due to Latin.

hemi (Lat. *semi*: half): '*hemi*sphere, *hemi*stich'.

hyper (Lat. *super*, Germ. *über*, Engl. *over* (comp. *up, upper*): over, beyond, excess): '*hyper*borean, *hyper*critical'.

hypo, hyp (Lat. *sub*: under): '*hypo*crite, *hypo*thec, *hypo*thesis; *hyp*hen'.

meta, met (among, with; after; change): '*meta*morphose, *meta*phor, *meta*physics; *met*al, mettle, meteor, *meth*od'.

micro (small): '*micro*cosm (opposed to '*macro*cosm'), *micro*phone, *micro*scope.

mono, mon (alone): '*mono*gamy, *mono*graph, *mono*mania, *mono*tone; *mon*arch, *mon*ody'.

pan, panto (all): '*pan*orama, *pan*theism, *panto*mime'.

para, par (beside, against): *para*ble, *para*dox, *para*graph; *par*enthesis, *par*helion, *par*ish, *par*ody'.

'Parabola, parable, parlance, parley, parliament, parlour, parole'—all from Gr. *parabolē*, some of them through low Lat. *parabolare*, Ital. *parlare*, Fr. *parler*.

peri (round) : '*peri*cardium, period, peripatetic'.

'*Peri*winkle' (plant) is O. E. *pinewincle, peruince*, Fr. *pervenche*, Lat. *pervinca*, or *vincapervinca*, from *per* and *vincio* (bind). '*Peri*wig' is a corruption of 'peruke'. Neither has any connexion with Gr. *peri*.

philo (friendly to) : '*philo*-Athenian, philo-Spartan' (Grote).

poly (many) : '*poly*gamy, polygon, polytheism'.

pro (before) : '*pro*blem, proem, programme, prologue'.

pros (towards) : '*pros*elyte, prosody'.

pseudo (false) : '*pseudo*nym, pseudo-martyr'.

syn (comp. Lat. *cum* : with), modified to **syl, sym, sy** : '*syn*agogue, synod, synopsis (comp. Lat. *conspectus*), syntax ; *syl*lable ; *sym*pathy ; *sy*stem'.

Derivation of the Parts of Speech.

THE NOUN.

6. Root Nouns. Some Nouns are *simple*, *primitive*, or *underived* words. These are sometimes called **roots** ; as 'eye', 'ear', 'hand', 'foot', 'cow', 'sheep', 'heart,' 'hope'.

These are root words as far as concerns English grammar In the comparison of languages they may sometimes be traced to forms still more radical or fundamental. To do so is the province of comparative grammar, or philology.

7. Derived Nouns are formed from simple *Nouns*, from *Adjectives* and from *Verbs*

The means of formation are : (1) **Internal modification**—change in the vowel, or in the consonants, or in both ; (2) **Prefixes** ; and (3) **Suffixes** or Endings.

Adjectives are very commonly used as Nouns by simple omission of the nouns they should limit ; but these must always be readily understood. Verbs are also sometimes used as nouns without any change.

8. I. Nouns are derived **from other Nouns.**

(1) By *internal modification*. By change of vowel, or of vowel and consonant, we have such derivatives as 'chick' (O. E. *cycen*, from 'cock'), 'kit' (cat), 'tip' (top). In such cases as

'tip', from 'top', we must infer from the nature of the case, or from analogy, which is the primitive and which the derivative. 'Kit' and 'chick' are abbreviations of 'kitten', 'chicken'; and the vowel change is owing to the influence of the final syllable now dropt. These are all diminutives.

(2.) By *Prefixes*. Already exemplified (§§ 2-5).

(3.) By *Suffixes*, Native and Classical.

(*a*). The following group have reached, from various original meanings, the same general signification of **state, quality, or condition**. In accordance with the usual tendency, the abstract name has in many cases been taken to express **collectiveness**, the body of individuals possessing the abstract quality. Some examples have passed to the more remote application of **general** or **class**, or even **material**, names.

Native Suffixes. —**craft** (strength, skill, condition): 'book-*craft*, priestcraft, witchcraft, woodcraft'.

dom (jurisdiction, authority, condition): 'Christen*dom*, heathendom, kingdom (in O. E., however, it was *cynedom*: see § 9, 2), martyrdom, rascaldom, serfdom'.

hood, head (O. E. *had*: rank, condition): 'boy*hood*, brotherhood, childhood, manhood; god*head*, maidenhead (-hood)'.

lock (O. E. *lac*: gift, play): 'wed*lock*'. In O. E.: *brydlac* ('bride-lock', marriage), *guthlac* ('war-*play*', battle), &c.

ness (state, condition): 'wilder*ness* (from *wil(d)deor*, 'wild beast'); nothingness, somethingness (Goldsmith)'. Also, perhaps, 'witness'.

red (O. E. *ræden*: reckoning, law, condition): 'kind*red*' (O. E. *cynred*, *cynren*, for *cynræden*); 'hat*red*' is a late example (12th cent.). 'Hund*red*' is doubtful.

ric (rule, jurisdiction): 'bishop*ric*'.

ship (O. E. *scipe*: shape, manner, condition): 'fellow*ship*, friendship, guardianship, lordship, worship (= 'worthship')'.

The chief of these suffixes—*dom, hood, ship*, seem to be employed somewhat indiscriminately in new compounds, the preference being governed probably by suitability of sound. When the same word is combined with more than one suffix, a distinctive meaning is connected with each compound: compare 'king*dom*' and 'king*ship*'.

Classical Suffixes. —**acy** (Lat. *ātus*: condition, office): 'celib*acy*, magistracy'. So: 'curacy, papacy, &c.'.

ade (on analogy of same suffix to verb roots): 'balustr*ade*, colonnade, fusilade, lemonade'.

age (Fr.; Lat. *-aticus*, orig. forming adjectives); 'hom*age*,

peerage, vassalage, voyage ; broker*age*, mileage ; cellar*age* ; foliage, herbage ; cott*age*, personage '.

archy (Gr. ; rule) : 'squire*archy*'.

ate (Lat. *ātus*, 4th decl. ; office) : ' consul*ate*, marshal*ate*, protector*ate* '. Compare **acy**. ' Celib*ate*, magistr*ate*, potent-*ate* ', are concrete applications.

cide (Lat. -*cidium*, -murder) : ' matri*cide*, regicide, suicide '. Shelley has ' liberti*cide* '.

cracy (Gr. -*kratia* ; rule) : ' demo*cracy*, ochlocracy, pluto-*cracy* ; bureau*cracy*, mobocracy '.

cy (see **acy**) : 'advoca*cy*, bankruptcy, colonelcy, ensigncy '.

ine (Lat. *ina*) : 'discipl*ine*, doctrine, medicine ; famine '.

ism (as from Greek verbs in *izo* ; see **ma . . s-m**, § 10, 3, (3)) : ' absentee*ism*, despotism, journalism, materialism, pietism '.

mony (Lat. -*mon-ia*, -*ium*) : ' cere*mony*, matrimony, patri-mony, testimony '.

ry, ery (Lat. *aria, eria*, Fr. (*e*)*rie*) : ' carpent*ry*, chivalry, devilry, knavery, poetry '. So : ' buffoon*ery*, coquetry, popery, rivalry '.

ty (Lat. *tat-em*, Fr. *té*) : ' authori*ty*, city '. So, 'lai*ty*'.

y (Lat. *ātus*, 4th decl.) : ' coun*ty*, duchy '.

y (Gr. and Lat. *eia, ia*, Fr. *ie*) : ' baron*y*, energy, euphony, Italy, monarchy, phantasy (fancy) '.

y (Lat. -*ium*) : ' master*y*, ministry, mystery '. So, ' burglary, fishery, robbery '.

Other cases in -*y* are seen in -*ac-y*, -*arch-y*, -*crac-y*, -*mon-y*.

(*b*.) The next group contains examples of endings whose prevailing force is **diminutive**. There must have been some powerful motives at work to lead to so many forms of expressing diminution. In this case we must look to the feelings even more than to the intellect. The two strong sentiments— endearment and contempt—are gratified by these modes of designating things. They are also applied to the young of all living beings, and to the instances of things occurring below the average size. Many of the terms have now lost their diminutive force, and are applied to discriminate things specifically or generically different, so that the emotional impulses have here, as in other instances, contributed to extend the number of words available for the objects of nature and art.

Native Suffixes. — **k, ock** (dimin.) : 'bull*ock*, hillock ; hawk (O. E. *hafoc*) '. Patronymics : ' Poll*ock* (Paul), Will*ock*, Willox '. In Scotch, -*ick :* ' lass*ick* ' as well as ' lassock '.

ikin, kin (*ock* + -*n*) : ' boot*ikin*, mannikin ; firkin (four), lambkin, napkin '. Patronymics : ' Daw*kin*(s) (David) ; Haw-

kin(s) (Hal, Henry); Perkin(s), Peterkin; Tomkin, Tomkyns; Wilkin(s); Watkin(s) (Wat, Walter)'.

ing (nasalized -*k*, dimin.): 'farth*ing* (fourth), tithing (tithe, tenth), riding (Yorkshire; for '*th*riding': 'thrid' = 'third'). Patronymics: 'Æthelwulf*ing*, Weeting', and regularly in oldest English. So 'ætheling'; 'king' (O. E. *eyning, ciny*) is not certain.

ling (= *l-ing*): 'duck*ling*, gosling, squireling, yearling'.

y, ie: 'bab*y*, Will*y*; lass*ie*, lass-*ick-ie*'. This ending may be regarded as a weaker mode of -*k* (*oek*, &c.).

en: 'chick*en* (cock), kitt*en* (cat), maiden'.

ful (full; the opposite of diminution): 'cap*ful*, handful, pocketful'.

Classical Suffixes.—**aster**: 'oleaster (*wild* olive), pinaster; pilaster (pillar only partly shown), poetaster (inferior poet)'.

cule, cle, ule, le, el, il (Lat. *culum, ulus, ellus, illus,* &c.): 'animal*cule*, reticule; part*icle* (parcel), tubercule, uncle, ventricle; versicle; glob*ule*, nodule, pilule; cast*le*, chap*el*, libel, morsel, vessel (*vascul*-ar), cod*icil*, pug*ilist*'. 'Grill', Fr. *grille*, is Lat. *craticula*.

r-el, er-el: 'cocker*el*, mackerel, pickerel (pike)'.

isk (Gr. *iskos*): 'aster*isk*, basilisk, obelisk'.

t, et, ot (Fr. *et, ette, ot, otte*): 'bill*et*, casket, circlet, coronet, lancet, pocket, ticket, turret; ball*ot*, chariot'.

l-et: 'look*let*, ringlet, leaflet, speechlet'.

(*c*). A third group contains some endings that express an *agent or person*, or an *instrument or thing*, connected with the object that the root word names.

Native Suffixes.—**le**: 'thimb*le*' (thumb).

lick, lock, ley (O. E. *leac*, 'leek', 'plant'): 'gar*lick*; char*lock*, hemlock; bar*ley*'. 'Cowslip' is perhaps a corruption of 'cow's-leek'.

man, woman: 'church*man*, -*woman*, countryman, prize-man'.

en (See INFLEXION, *Gender*, § 5): 'vix*en*' (fox).

er: 'bench*er*, executioner, glover, hatter, islander; 74-pounder, three-decker, porringer'. 'Fruit-*er-er*' has double ending. Through French influence come 'cloth*ier*, lawy*er*', &c.

ster: 'song*ster*, tonguester; road*ster*'.

Classical Suffixes.—**ad, id** (Gr. and Lat. *-ad-, -id-*; of, or belonging to; names of descendants and of poems): 'Ili*ad* (Ilion), Sestiad (Sestos); Æne*id* (Æneas)'. 'Heracl*id*, Nereid'.

ā-go (Lat.; cp. **īgo** § 13): 'farr*ago*, plumb*ago*, virago, virg*in*; lan-*ugin*-ous, ole-*agin*-ous'. 'Cartilage' (Lat. *cartilāgo*).

al, el, (See § 13) : 'can*al* (chann*el*), funeral, general, hospit (hotel), jewel, material, &c.' ; all originally adjectives.

an, ain, &c. (See Adjectives from Nouns, § 13) : 'grammar*ian*, librar*ian* ; chapl*ain*, villain ; camp*aign*'. Fundamentally an adjective formation.

ar, er, or, eer, ier, ary (Lat. *-ārius*, Fr- *-aire*, *-ier*) : 'schol*ar*, vicar ; butl*er*, carpenter, cellarer, draper, messenger plover, prisoner, sorcerer, squire (older 'squyer'), treasurer, usher ; chancell*or*, proprietor ; brigad*ier*, chandelier ; engin*eer*, mountain*eer* ; dignit*ary*, functionary, missionary'.

ar, er, ry, ary (Lat. *arium*; place or thing) : 'cell*ar*, charter, exemplar (sampl*er*) ; dower, larder, saucer ; dow*ry*, vestry ; avi*ary*, granary, library, seminary, vocabulary'. 'Arm*ory*'.

ard (N. Fr. *ard*, Germ. *hart*, O. E. *heard*: intensive) : 'cow*ard* (Lat. *cauda*, 'tail'; cp. Ital. *codardo*: has no connexion with 'cow'), staggard, tankard ; Savoy*ard* ; Leonard'. 'Gizzard' is assimilated from Fr. *gesier*, Lat. *gigerium*. 'Lizard' is French *lézard*, Lat. *lacerta*.

ate (substances) : 'cer*ate*, carbonate, hydrate'.

brum (Lat. ; place) : 'candela*brum*, cerebrum '.

ch, ge (Lat. *-ĭcus, -ĭca*) : 'per*ch*, porch ; for*ge*, serge'.

cide (Lat. *-cīda*, -killer) : 'matri*cide*, regicide'.

crat (Gr., ruler) : 'demo*crat*, plutocrat'.

ern : ' cas*ern*, cistern, tavern '.

ess (Lat. *issa*, Fr. *esse*: see Inflexion, *Gender*, § 5) : 'baron*ess*, duchess, manageress, poetess'.

ess, is, ese, (Lat. *ensis*, of, belonging to) : ' burg*ess*, marqu*is* (marquess) ; Milan*ese*, Siamese'. Originally adjectives: see § 11.

-ic, -tic (originally adjective ending) : 'cler*ic* (clerk), mystic ; log*ic*(s), mathematics, metaphysic(s)', &c.

ina, ine (Gr. *ine*, Lat. *ina*: see Inflexion, *Gender*, § 5) : 'hero*ine*, Josephine ; czar*ina*'.

ine, in (substances : fundamentally adjective ending) : 'cas*eine*, fluorine, pepsine, tann*in*'.

ist (on the analogy of nouns from Greek verbs in *izō*) : 'art*ist*, calvinist, excursionist, florist, monarchist, pianist, tobacconist, tolerationist'.

ist-er : 'bar-r-*ist-er*, chor-*ist-er*, sophister'.

ite, it (Gr. *ītēs*, Lat. *ita*) : 'cosmopol*ite*, hoplite, Israelite, Neapol*ite*n ; Jesuit'. And in scientific names of substances : 'ammon*ite*, dolomite, websterite'.

ix. See **trix**, below.

on, eon, ion, oon, one (Lat. *-ōn-, -iōn-*: persons, animals, or things, like to or connected with the object denoted by the

root word; sometimes diminutive, sometimes augmentative) : 'centur*ion*, champion, matr*on*, patron ; falc*on*, stall*ion* ; (e)scutch*eon*, gallon, pennon (pennant), talon, ball*oon*, bassoon, musketoon, saloon, tromb*one*'. 'Pawn' (chessman) is Fr. *pion*, Ital. *pedone*.

ry, ery (Lat. *aria, eria*, Fr. *(e)rie :* collective) : 'butter*y*, cavalry, pantry ; drapery, English*ry*, gentry, machinery, masonry, musketry, peasantry, poultry'.

tor (See verb roots) : 'gladia*tor*, janitor'.

trix (= *tor-ix*, fem. of -*tor :* see verb roots) : 'jani-*tr-ix*, proprietrix'.

y (Lat. -*ium :* place) : 'auditor*y*, dormitor*y*, registr*y*'.

9. II. Nouns are derived from Adjectives, by means of *suffixes*.

(a) The chief formation yields *abstract* nouns.

Native Suffixes.—The following two are the principal :

ness. This is by far the chief suffix for converting the adjective into the corresponding abstract noun : 'bold*ness*, goodness, kindness, sharpness, whiteness'. There are many hundreds of these compounds in English.

th, t (same as the participial ending -*d*) : 'bread*th* (broad), dearth, depth, drought (dry), health (hale), height (formerly also 'highth'), length (long), strength, sloth, width'. The vowel is shortened or otherwise changed, and sometimes the final consonant of the adjective is also modified.

The other abstract suffixes are less used :

dom : 'free*dom*, halidom, wisdom'. 'Kingdom' is a new formation on the basis of O. E. *cynedom*, 'royal (*cyne*) jurisdiction or authority (*dom*, doom)'.

hood : 'false*hood*, hardihood, likelihood'. 'Livelihood' once meant 'liveliness', but it has taken the place of 'liflode' (*lif-ladu*, 'life-leading'), 'means of living'.

s : 'bliss' is for *bliths*, from 'blithe'.

ship : 'hard*ship*'.

Classical Suffixes.—**acy** (see **y**).

cracy (Gr., rule) : 'aristo*cracy*, autocracy, oligocracy'.

ice, ise, ess (Lat. *it-ia ;* Fr. *ice, ise, esse*) : 'just*ice*, malice ; franch*ise*, merchandise ; prow*ess*, riches (for '*richess*')'.

ism (§ 10, III., (3)): 'absolut*ism*, conventionalism, optimism, pessimism, romanticism, truism (concrete)'.

lence, lenc-y (from -*lent*) : 'corpu*lence*, opulence, turbulence, turbu-*lenc-y*, virulence'.

mon-y (Lat. *mon-ia*, -*ium*) : 'acri*mony*, sanctimony'.

nce, nc-y (Lat. *nt-ia*, Fr. *nc-e :* from impf. part. -*nt*) :

'abund*ance*, brilliance, *-anc-y*, delinquency, eminence, *-enc-y*, evidence, precedence, *-ency* '.

ry, ery : ' brav*ery*, fin*ery*, pleasantry '.

tude (Lat. *tud-(in)-em*) : ' apti*tude*, certitude, lassitude, magnitude, multitude, quietude (for *quiet-tude*), plenitude '. ' Custom ' is *consuetudinem*, Fr. *coutume*.

ty (Lat. *tāt-em*, Fr. *té*) : ' beau*ty*, bounty, certainty, charity, cruelty, faculty, fidelity (fealty), honesty (for *honest-ty*), liberty, purity, security (surety), variety '.

y (Gr. and Lat. *ia*, Fr. *ie*) : ' miser*y*, perfidy, philosophy; efficacy, delicacy, privacy, &c.

For other cases of *-y*, see *lenc-y, mon-y, nc-y*, above.

(*b*) A few suffixes expresses *agent or person*, or *instrument* or *related object*.

Native Suffixes.—**er, ster :** ' British*er*, foreign*er*, philosopher; young*ster* '.

ing, lin-g (often dimin.) : ' sweet*ing*, whiting ; darl*ing* (dear), firstling, youngling, weakling '. ' Scantling ' is an assimilation of Fr. *échantillon*, which is a dimin. from a noun, and has nothing to do with ' scant '.

Classical Suffixes.—**arch** (Gr., ruler) : ' hier*arch*, monarch '.

ary (Lat. *āri-us-um*) : ' advers*ary*, secretary ; mortu*ary* '.

ate (like participles in *-ātus*) : ' candid*ate* '.

crat (Gr., ruler) : ' aristo*crat*, autocrat '.

ist (on analogy of nouns from Gr. verbs in *-izō*) : ' econom*ist*, optimist, purist, royalist, specialist '.

n, an, ain, en, in, on (om) (Lat. *-ān-, -ēn-*, &c.) : ' de*an*, fount*ain*, mountain ; ali*en*, dozen, sovereign ; cha*in*, vermin ; damso*n* (damascene), venom ; clari*on*, onion, simple-t-o*n*.' Most of these were originally adjectives.

s-ter (Lat.) : ' ma*ster (magister)*, minister '.

t, it(e), ot(e) (Gr. *-tes*, Lat. *-ta*) : ' herm*it* (erem*ite*), idi*ot*, patriot ; Cypri*ote* '.

10. III. Nouns are derived from Verbs.

(1) By *internal modification*.

(*a*) By change of *vowel :* ' b*a*nd, bond (from ' bind '), food (feed), stroke (str*i*ke) '.

(*b*) By modifying the *final consonant :* ' belie*f* (believe), dit*ch* (di*g*), spee*ch* (spea*k*)'.

(*c*) By modifying *both vowel and consonant :* ' choice (choose), breach (break), life (live), watch (wake), breath (breathe), loss (lose), hilt (hold)'.

(2) By *Prefixes* (§§ 2-5). This process is indirect : '*in*come, *out*come, *out*turn, *over*turn, &c '.

(3) By *Suffixes*.

(*a*) Expressing *agent or person*, or *instrument* or related object.

Native Suffixes.—**l, el, le** : ' bead*le*, beetle (the animal), fow*l* '. ' Beet*le* (mallet), bridle, bundle, girdle, nee-d-le, riddle, saddle, sail, settle (seat), shov*el*, sickle, skittles, spin-d-le, stile (O.E. *stigel*), whittle '.

l-ing (diminutive ; sometimes passive) : ' chang*eling*, fostering, hireling, suckling '.

m, om : ' bar*m* (bear), bloom (blow), gleam (glow), qualm (quell), seam (sow), team (tow) ; bloss*om* (blow), bosom, bottom, fathom '.

man : ' hang*man* '. ' Ploughman, watchman, workman ', &c., may come from nouns.

n, en, on (past partic. ending): ' bair*n* (bear), beacon (beck), burden (bear), heaven (heave), main (may, O.E. *mag-*, ' be great '), son (= bairn), thane (O.E. *theg(e)n*, *then*, from verb = ' serve '), token (from verb = ' show '), waggon, wain (from O.E. *wegan*, ' to carry ')'.

nd (O.E. impf. part. ending) : ' fie*nd* (from *fian*, ' to hate '), friend (O.E. *freond*, from *freon*, ' to love ')'. ' Erra*nd* (from verb = ' be quick '), wi*nd* (from verb = ' blow ')'.

r, ar, er, or : ' bak*er*, boor, builder, delver, digger, idler, planter, printer, singer, speaker ; begg*ar* (formerly ' begger '), liar ; sail*or* (O. E. ' sailer ')'. ' Bow*er*, chopper, cooler, disclaimer, finger, lair, rejoinder, reminder, roller, stair, streamer, timber.'

ster (see INFLEXION, *Gender*, §5) : ' baxter (O.E. *bœcestre*, from ' bake '), brewster, deemster or dempster (judge, in Isle of Man and in Channel Islands : O.E. *deman*, to deem or judge), punster, rhymester, spinster, throwster '.

th, t, d (past partic. ending) : ' wrea*th* ; clef*t*, gif*t* ; bla*de*, bran*d*, dee*d* (do), floo*d*, see*d* (sow)'. Cp. abstracts in these endings.

ther, ter, der : ' fa*ther*, mother, daugh*ter* '. ' Blad*der*, blis*ter* (blow), fea*ther* (from verb = ' fly '), fodder, ladder (from verb = ' climb '), rudder (row).'

Classical Suffixes.—**ade, ado** (see below (2)) : ' renega*de*, despera*do* '.

ard, art (see § 8 ; mixed up with sense of agency) : ' blink*ard*, brag-g-*art* (formerly ' bragg*ard* '), laggard ; poniard '.

bulum (Lat.), **bule, ble** : ' pa*bulum* ; vestibu*le* ; fa*ble*, stable, vocable '. **-bra**, as in ' verte*bra* ', is a slight modification for euphony.

culum (Lat.), **cule, cle** ; slightly modified to **crum** (Lat.), **chre** : ‘curri*culum* ; ridi*cule* ; mira*cle*, arti*cle*, vehi*cle* ; ful*crum*, simula*crum* ; sepul*chre*’.

ple (Lat. *pulum*) : ‘exam*ple*, tem*ple*’.
Compare also **-trum**.

ee (Lat. p. part. *-atus*, *-ata* ; Fr. *é,-ée*) : ‘legat*ee*’. So, ‘absent*ee*, commit*tee*, consign*ee*, devot*ee*, pay*ee*, refug*ee*’.

ma, m, me, -s-m (Gr. and Lat., *-ma*, *-mos (mus)*, *-s-m-*) : diplo*ma*, poe*m*, proble*m*, sche*me*, the*me* ; chas*m*, spas*m*, bapt*ism*, chris*m*, pris*m*, isth*mus*, cos*mos*, micr*ocosm*’. The *-s*-belongs originally to derivatives from Greek verbs in *-izo*. Many of these words are, in the first instance, abstract ; as ‘bapt*ism*, spas*m*’.

mus, m, me (Lat. *-mus*, &c., instrumental agency) : ‘ani*mus*, ar*m*, fa*me*, fla*me*, fu*me*’.

men, me, m (Lat. *men*, passive subject) : ‘speci*men*, cri*me*, volu*me*, char*m*, ger*m* (ger*men*)’. ‘Noun’ is from ‘no*men*’, through French.

mnus, mn (Lat. *mnus*, &c., passive subject) : ‘alu*mnus*, autu*mn*, colu*mn*’.

n, ne (Lat. *-n-us,-a,-um* ; Gr. *nos*, &c., ; ‘possessing’; cognate with *-n*, *en* of p. part.) : ‘fa*ne*, pe*n*, plai*n*, pla*ne*, reig*n*, sig*n*, thro*ne*’.

ndum (Lat.), **nd** (gerund.) : ‘memora*ndum* ; deoda*nd*, multiplica*nd*, reprima*nd*, via*nd* ; devide*nd*, lege*nd*, prebe*nd*’.

nt (Lat. impf. part.) : ‘defenda*nt*, mercha*nt*, serva*nt* ; accide*nt*, age*nt*, curre*nt*, stude*nt*’. Cp. Adjectives in *-nt*, many of which become nouns, sometimes with change of ‘-ent’ to ‘-ant’.

ion, on, eon, oon (Lat. *-on-*, &c.) : ‘leg*ion*, reg*ion* ; dra-g*on*, glutt*on*, less*on* (lect*ion*), mas*on* ; pig*eon* ; buff*oon*, spitt*oon*’. Cp. abstracts.

ess (see INFLEXION, *Gender*, § 5) : ‘cater*ess*, murder*ess*, pro-cur*ess*’. The fem. ending replaces, instead of being added to, the masc. ending. ‘Empr*ess*’ is an assimilation ; contracted, through French, from *imperātrīcem* (**-trix**).

t, ate, it(e), s(e), ce, te, ute (Lat. parts. of verbs) : ‘advo-c*ate*, cur*ate*, leg*ate*, mand*ate* (Cp. **-ade**) ; deb*t*, conven*t*, dèser*t*, fac*t*, frui*t*, insec*t*, je*t*, join*t*, pos*t*, ren*t*, trac*t*, verdic*t* ; spou*se*, assi*ze*, expen*se*, fos*se*, respon*se*, ver*se* ; sau*ce*, sour*ce* ; no*te*, vo*te* ; stat*ute*, tribu*te*’.

t, te (Gr. *tēs*, Lat. *ta*) : ‘aposta*te*, come*t*, plane*t*’.

s-t, ast, ist (the *-s-* belongs originally to the Greek verb) ‘dik*ast*, enthusia*sm*, bapt*ist*, catech*ist*, Chr*ist*’. Similar forma-tions from nouns and adjectives by *-ist* are abundant.

t-or, s-or, or, er (Lat. *t-ōrem*, *s-ōrem*, Fr. *-teur*, *seur*, &c.) : ‘credi*tor*, deb*tor*, doc*tor*, fac*tor*, moni*tor*, vic*tor* ; cen*sor*,

sponsor, successor'. 'Author' is a misspelling of Lat. and O.E. *auctor*. 'Emperor, governor, juror, &c.' have been curtailed. 'Er' has often usurped the place of *-or* : 'interpreter (Lat. *interpretātōrem*), lever, preacher, &c.'

t-or-y, s-or-y, or, our, er (Lat. *t-or-ium, s-or-ium* ; Fr. *-oir(e)*) : 'audi*tory*, dormitory, oratory, refectory ; mir*ror*, ra*zor*, scis*sors* ; par*lour* ; cen*ser*, coun*ter*, la*ver*.'

trum, tre, ter, s-t-r (Lat. *trum*) : 'ros*trum*, spec*tre*, clois*ter*, mon*ster*'.

y, ey (Lat. p. part, *āta*, Fr. *ée*) : 'arm*y*, assembly, destiny, entry, jelly, jetty, jury, levy, quarry ; chimn*ey*, cov*ey*, medl*ey*'.

y (Fr. *-ie*) : 'batter*y*'.

(2) Expressing *action* ; with frequent new applications to con-crete meanings.

Native Suffixes.—**ing** (O.E. *ung* : verbal nouns) : 'beginn*ing*, blessing (O.E. *bletsung*), cleansing, drawing, ending, meeting, reasoning, suffering, writing'.

ledge (O.E. *lac* ; see **lock**, § 8) : 'know*ledge* (O.E. *cnawlac, cnowlech*)'.

ter : 'laugh*ter*, slaughter'.

th, t (past partic. ending) : 'birth (bear), broth (brew), earth (*ear*, 'to plough'), filth (*file*), growth, ruth (rue), tilth ; draught, drift, flight, frost, thought'.

Classical Suffixes.—**ad, ade, ada, ado** (Lat. *atus,-a* : 'ad' for Fr. *ade* ; 'ade' Ital. through Fr. ; 'ada', 'ado', Span.) : 'ball*ad*, salad ; barric*ade*, blockade, escapade, promenade, tirade ; arm*ada* ; brav*ado*'.

age (Lat. *-aticum*, Fr. *age* : orig. adjective ending, then collective, finally abstract) : 'break*age*, carriage, cleavage, message, marriage, passage, tillage'.

al (Lat. *ālis* ; cp. **age**) : 'arriv*al*, committal, denial, re-moval, reversal, revival, upheaval, withdrawal'.

el, le (Lat. *-ela*) : 'cand*le*, caut*el*, quarrel, tut*el*-age'.

igo (Lat. cp. **ago**, § 8) : 'impet*igo*, vertigo ; orig*in* (Lat. *originem*).

in, ine-(Lat. *īna*) : 'ru*in* ; rap*ine*'.

ment (Lat. *mentum*) : 'attain*ment*, argument, bewilderment, confinement, fulfilment, impalement, torment'. New forma-tions, like some of the foregoing, are very abundant. They all tend strongly to be used in the concrete application ; as 'argument, document, instrument, ornament'.

mon-y (Gr. and Lat. *mon-ia, -ium*) : 'ali*mony*, harmony, parsimony' (for 'parcimony', from verb *parco*, or from adj. *parcus*).

nce (See nouns from Adjectives). New formations from verb

roots are plentiful : ' alli*ance*, insistance (-*ence*), remembrance,
tarri*ance*, vari*ance* ; exist*ence*, occurrence '.

or, our (Lat. *ōrem*, Fr. *eur*) : ' clam*our*, err*or*, favour,
hon*our*, labour '.

sis, sy, se (Gr. and Lat. *sis*, Fr. *sie*, *se*) : ' analy*sis*, basis,
metamorphosis, periphrasis, thesis ; epilep*sy*, hypocrisy, palsy
(paralysis), poesy ; ba*se*, dose, ellipse, phrase '.

t, it(e), s(e), &c. (see above): ' appet*ite*, aud*it*, credit, habit,
merit ; desèr*t*, quest ; applause, course, lap*se*, use ; acces*s*, pro-
ces*s* '.   See also forms in -*acy* and -*y*.

t-ion, s-ion, ion, son, som, ation (Lat. -*ōnem*, Fr. -*on*) :
' ac*tion*, conviction, detrition, fiction, lotion, restitution,
station ; ces*sion*, convulsion, fusion, oppression ; conta*gion*,
oblivion, opinion, suspicion ; fashion (faction), poi*son* (potion),
reason (ration), season, treason (tradition), veni*son* '.   ' Ransom '
is through Fr. from Lat. *redemptiōnem*.   The ending -*ation*
gives the appearance of derivation from verbs of the -*āre* con-
jugation : ' bother*ation*, insultation ' ; and especially with -*fic*-
before it : ' glorification, mystification ', corresponding to verbs
in -*fy*, ' glori*fy*, mystify ', which modify the Lat. form -*fac*- or
-*fic*- under French influence.

t-ure, s-ure, (Lat. -*ūra* ; often becoming concrete) : ' cap-
ture, cen*sure*, composure, fissure, gesture, posture, pressure ;
adventure, aperture, creature, discomfi*ture*, embrasure, failure,
forfeiture, lecture, picture, seizure, soilure '.   ' Arm*our* ' (Lat.
amatura).   Several words take this ending by assimilation :
' leisure, pleasure, treasure '.

y, ium, (Lat. *ium*) : ' colloqu*y*, study ; od*ium* '.   New
formations : ' delivery, discovery, inquiry ', and many others.

Compare similar abstracts from nouns.

For other cases of -*y*, see -*mon-y*, above.

<div align="center">DERIVATION OF ADJECTIVES.</div>

II. Derived Adjectives are formed from *Nouns*, from other *Adjectives*, and from *Verbs*.

Nouns are very largely used as adjectives without any change
of form.   Verbs are very sparingly employed in the same way.

I. Adjectives are derived from Nouns, by means of *Suffixes*.

Native Suffixes.—**d, ed** (past partic. ending : ' endowed.
furnished with ') : ' certificat*ed*, feathered, experienced, gifted,
moneyed, ragged, sainted, skilled '.   Especially common when
an adjective accompanies the noun : ' close-fisted, left-handed,
middle-aged, right-minded, wrong-headed, &c.'.

n, en ('of' or 'belonging to'; material): 'brazen, flaxen, golden, leathern, oaken, waxen, wheaten, wooden, woollen'.

er-n: 'east-er-n, northern, southern, western'.

er-ly (compare **-ly**, below): 'easterly, &c.'.

fast (O. E. *fæst*, firm): 'rootfast, shamefast (usually spelled 'shamefaced'), stedfast'.

ful: 'awful, careful, gainful, hopeful, truthful'.

ish (possessing some leading quality of the noun; attached to; belonging to): 'bookish, boyish, foolish, selfish, slavish; English, Welsh, Dutch'.

less (O. E. *leas*, 'loose'; privation or negation): 'artless, cheerless, fearless, friendless, lawless, senseless, sleepless'.

like, ly (resemblance, *likeness*): 'childlike, courtly, godlike, lordly, lovely, manlike, manly, yearly, warlike'.

some (O. E. *-sum*, Germ. *-sam*; another form of 'same'; possessing the quality of the noun): 'adventuresome, burdensome, delightsome, handsome'.

ward (becoming, turned in the direction of): 'homeward, landward, southward'. These words are probably to be considered as adverbs.

y, ey (the quality of the noun): 'airy, balmy, cloudy, flowery, foggy, grassy, lofty, oily, seedy, silvery, watery, &c.'

Classical Suffixes.—**able** (See § 13): 'fashionable, marketable, objectionable. serviceable'.

-c, ac, ic, -tic, -ge (Gr. and Lat. *-ic-*, *-tic-*): 'demoniac, maniac; Britannic, civic, cleric, generic, magic, mystic, public, schismatic, strategic; aquatic, Asiatic, domestic, fanatic, lunatic'. With *-ist-*: 'characteristic, fetichistic, mediumistic, ritualistic'.

With additional ending: 'cleric-al, magical, mystical, pragmatic-al; bellic-ose'.

'Savage' is Lat. *silva-tic-us*, through Fr. *sauv-age*.

-d, id (Gr. *eidēs*; like): 'alkaloid, ovoid, typhoid'.

form (Lat. *-form-is*): 'dendriform, penniform, poriform'.

-l, al, el, il(e), le, (Lat. *-ālis, -ēlis, -ĭlis*): 'annual, capital, literal, nominal, regal; additional, professional, regimental, &c.; cruel; civil, gentile (gentle, genteel), hostile, jaunty, puerile; hum-b-le'. Very many adjectives in *-al* are converted into nouns. (See § 8.)

Occasionally *al* is added to or takes the place of other endings. Especially it is added to *-ic* (See above): 'biblic-al, cubical, logic-al ('logic' having become a noun). Cp. 'celest-i-al (Lat. *cœl-est-is*), fest-iv-al (Lat. *fest-iv-us*), pater-n-al (Lat. *pater-nus*).'

lent (Lat. *lentus*): 'corpulent, fraudulent, opulent, somnolent, turbulent'.

n, an, ane, ian (Lat. *ānus*, Fr. *an, ain, aine, ien*): 'human,

pagan ; American, Elizabethan, Roman ; humane, mundane, urbane ; Christian, Ciceronian, prætorian ; Neapolitan, cosmopolitan '.

There are numerous new formations without reference to the original Latin ending : ' barbarian (Lat. *-us*), Corinthian, Etruscan, plebeian, Unitarian ; civilian (Lat. *-is*), equestrian (*-estris*), pedestrian ; Spenserian, Walpolian '.

-n, an-eous, an-ean, aign, eign, en, (Lat. *ān-eus*, Fr. *ain*): ' contemporaneous, spontaneous, subterranean, champaign, foreign (older ' foren '), sudden '.

-n, ene, ine (Lat. *-ēn-*, *-ĭn-*) : ' terrene ; Nazarene ; adamantine, asinine, bovine, divine, equine, feline, marine, saline ; Jugurthine '.

-r, ar, ary (Lat. *āris*) ; ' particular, perpendicular, popular, regular, secular ; military, palmary '.

-r, ary, ari-ous, ari-an (Lat. *ārius*) : ' arbitrary, customary, hereditary, honorary, imaginary, legionary, parliamentary, revolutionary, tributary ; gregarious, nefarious ; valetudin-ari-an, latitudinarian, utilitarian '.

ese (Lat. *ensis*, Ital. *ese*) : ' Chinese, Maltese ; Johnsonese '. ' Courteous ' (O. Fr. *curteis*) has assimilated itself to *-ous*. ' Peasant ' is Fr. *paysan*, Lat. *pagensis*.

esque, -ice, -is (Lat. *iscus*, Fr. *esque* : cp. Engl. *ish*) : ' arabesque, grotesque. Moresque (' morrice ' or ' morris ' dance, = ' Moorish '), picturesque, statuesque '.

ose, ous (Lat. *ōsus*, Fr. *eux*, *oux*) : ' operose, schistose, verbose ; calamitous, envious, glorious, perilous, pernicious, studious, victorious '. New formations are abundant : ' avaricious, burglarious, felonious, murderous, rapturous, slanderous, uproarious, wondrous ; contentious, contradictious, disputatious, ostentatious '.

For Lat. *-us :* ' consanguineous (Cp. ' sanguine '), decorous, igneous, noxious, uxorious '.

For Lat. *-is :* ' illustrious, scurrilous '.

Added to *-ac-*: ' farin-*ac-e-ous* (Lat. *-ac-e-us*), gallinaceous, herbaceous ' ; so ' carbonaceous, crustaceous, pearlaceous '. To **-ari-**: ' greg-*ar-i-ous* (Lat. *ar-i-us*), nefarious, precarious '. To **-ic-**: ' bell-*ic-ose* '. To **-fer-**: ' auri-*fer-ous* (Lat. *-fer*), carboniferous '. To **-ger-**: ' armi-*ger-ous* (Lat. *-ger*), plumigerous '. ' Boisterous ' (O.E. *bostois*), ' courteous ' (see **ese**), and ' righteous ' (for ' right-wise ', O. E. *rihtwis*), are assimilations.

t (Lat. *tus*) : ' honest, modest, robust '.

t, ate, ute (on analogy of participles) : ' delicate, dentate, laureate ; astute, cornute '. So, ' affectionate, (com-)passionate '.

time (Lat. *tĭmus*) : ' maritime ; legitim-ate '.

ive (Lat. *īvus*) : ' festive, furtive, instinctive '.

y (Lat. *ivus*, Fr. *if*) : 'jolly, massy (mass*ive*), testy'.
y (Lat. *-ius*, as if added to nouns in *-tor, -sor*) : 'accessory, amatory, hortatory, mandatory, persuasory'.

12. II. Adjectives are formed from other Adjectives, partly by Prefixes, and partly by Suffixes.

Prefixes.—Both Native and Classical Prefixes have already (§§ 2-5) been exemplified : '*a*-weary, *n*-one, *over*-confident, *un*-able, -dogmatic, -wieldy, &c.' '*Co*-terminous, *demi*-pagan, *dis*-courteous, -creditable, -interested, -passionate, *il*-liberal, *im*-mutable, *in*-attentive, *inter*-colonial, -national, *non*-sequacious, *post*-diluvian, *pre*-scientific, *preter*-natural, *sub*-acid, *super*-fine, *supra*-renal, *ultra*-Catholic, *philo*-Turkish.'

Native Suffixes.—**fold** : 'ten*fold*, sixtyfold, manifold'.
ish (diminutive : 'slightly ') : ' black*ish*, dullish '.
ly : ' clean*ly*, deadly, elderly, goodly, likely, lonely, only (one), sickly, weakly '.
some : ' dark*some*, irksome, lissome (lithe), lonesome '.
teen (= ten) : ' thir*teen*, nineteen '.
th, d (ordinal numbers) : ' four*th*, fifth, hundred*th* ; third'.
ty (ten) : ' twen*ty*, thirty, ninety '.

Classical Suffixes.—**ard, heart** (§ 8) : 'dull*ard*, sweet*heart*, wizard '.

-c, ic (§ 11). Added to **-ens-**: 'for-*ens-ic* (Lat. *forensis* : cp.
-ese). To **-est-**: ' agr-*est-ic* (Lat. *agrestis* : cp. ' majestic ').
ique (Lat. *-icus*, Fr. *ique*) : 'un*ique*'.
l, al (§ 11). Added to **-ic** : ' angel-*ic-al*, canonical, comical, historical, whimsical '. Often the form in *-ic* does not now exist. To **-id** (Gr. *-eid-*, § 11) : ' amygdalo-*id-al*, ovoidal '. To **-r-n-** : ' eternal (Lat. *æternus*), infernal, nocturnal '. To **-es-t-**: ' cel-*est-ial* ' (Lat. *cœl-est-is*). To **-str-**: ' terr-*estr-i-al* ' (Lat. *-estris*).
-l, el (Lat. *ellus*, &c.) : ' nov*el* '.
-n, an, ain, &c., **en** (Lat. *an-, en-*: § 11) : ' me*an*, tertian, veteran ; cert*ain* ; ali*en*, dozen '.
Added to **-ari-**: ' antiqu-*ari-an*, septuagenarian '. To **-ic-**: ' publ-*ic-an* ; patr-*ic-i an*, tribun-ician '. To **-estr-**: ' equ-*estr-ian*, pedestrian '.
ple, ble (Lat. *-plex*, 'fold ') : ' sim*ple*, dou*ble* (Lat. *duplex*), treble, triple, quadruple, quintuple, &c.'
-r, ar (Lat. *āris*) : ' singul*ar* '. ' Similar ' is for Lat. *simil-is*.
-r, ary (Lat. *arius*) : ' prim*ary*, secondary, solitary '.
ous (§ 11) : ' precipit*ous*, wrongous '.
Added to **-ac-, -ic-, -an-, -fer-, -ger-**: see § 11.

et, ette (Fr.) : ' brun*ette*, dulc*et*, russet '.

-t, ate (§ 11) : ' aur*eate*, candidate (orig. **an** adj.), roseate ; intim-*ate*, legitim-ate '.

13. III. Many **Adjectives** are formed **from Verbs**.

(1) The *Participles*, imperfect and perfect, of the Verb are often converted into Adjectives : ' a *paying* occupation ', ' a *roaring* lion ', ' *outlying* districts ', ' a *seeming* discrepancy '; ' *conquered* provinces ', ' *departed* spirits ', ' the *doomed* ship '. ' *escaped* criminals ', ' *pent-up* energy ', ' *runaway* horses ', ' his *bounden* duty ', ' *molten* gold ' ; ' *untaught*, *uncomforted*, *unfed* '. ' Uncouth ' is literally ' unknown '.

(2) Adjectives are formed from Verbs by *Suffixes*.

Native Suffixes.—**ful** : ' forget*ful*, wakeful '.   Compare O. E. *forgitol*, *wacol*.   The *-ful* is an assimilation.

le : ' brit*tle*, fickle (O. E. *ficol*,) nimb*le* (O. E. *numol*) '.

less : ' exhaust*less*, quenchless, shunless '.

r, er : ' bit*ter* (bite), slipper-*y* '.

some : ' buxom (= *bugh-some*, from *bugan*, ' to bow '), meddle*some*, noisome (Fr. *noisir*), tiresome '.

t (past partic.) : ' brigh*t*, right, swift '.

y : ' blow*y*, doughty (from *dugan*, ' to be able, to prevail '), shaky, sticky, sultry (*swelter-y*.) '.

Classical Suffixes.—**id** (Lat. -*idus*) ; ' ar*id*, candid, frigid, humid, rapid, splendid, timid, turbid '.

' Neat ', Fr. *net*, is Lat. *nitidus*.

-l, b-l, bile, able, ible, (i)le (Lat. (-*b*)-*il-is*, able ; mostly passive, sometimes active) : ' mo*bile ;* commend*able*, laudable, probable ; cred*ible*, defensible, horrible, plausible, terrible ; fee*ble* (Lat. *fle-bilis*), noble, stable, voluble ; fert*ile*, fissile, fragile (frail), versatile ; ab*le* (formerly ' *hable* ', Lat. *hab-ilis*) '. Numerous new formations : ' attainable, believable, credible, changeable (mutable), eatable (edible), killable, maintainable, renovable, thinkable, warrantable '.

-nd, und, bund, cund, ond (Lat. ; gerund form ; participial sense) : ' fac*und*, jocund, mori*bund*, rotund (round), rubicund, sec*ond*, vagabond.

nt (Lat. impf. part.) : ' abund*ant*, distant, constant, dormant; emin*ent*, latent, provident (prudent), urgent '.

-r, re (Lat. -*r*-) : ' clea*r*, di*re*, meagre, pure '.

ous : ' consc*ious* (Lat. -*us*), omnivorous, superfluous, viviparous '.

Added to **-ac-** : ' cap-*ac-ious* (Lat. -*ac-s*), fallacious, tenacious '.

u-ous (Lat. *u-us* = *vus ;* particip. sense, active or passive) : ' congr*uous*, conspicuous, deciduous, ingenuous '.   **ul-ous** (Lat.

ul-us, prone to ; participial sense): ' bib*ulous*, cred*ulous*, garru-
lous, querulous, sedulous '.   **it-ious** (Lat. *ic-ius*, &c. ; added to
supine) : ' advent*itious*, nutr*itious*, suppos*ititious*, surrept*itious* '.

-t, ate, ete, ite, ute, se (Lat. p. part.) : ' cogn*ate*, con-
siderate, desolate, private ; compl*ete*, concrete, discreet, secret ;
compos*ite*, finite, erect, strict ; ac*ute*, minute, mute, resolute ;
chaste ; clo*se*, immense, sparse, tense, terse '.

s-or-y, t-or-y (Lat. *-s-or-ius*, *-t-or-ius*): ' am*atory*, expository,
hortatory ; promiss*ory*, sensory '.   Compare § 10, and § 11, **y**,
end.

ive, iff, y (Lat. *īvus*, *-us*, Fr. *-if ;* joined to supines with
sense of impf. participle, rarely of p. p.) : ' act*ive*, attentive,
executive, fugitive, pensive, subversive ; captive, native (*naïve*),
cait*iff* (captive).'   Many of these are used as nouns.   ' Bail*iff*,
plaintiff ' are, perhaps always nouns now.   ' Hast*y*, pursy (Fr.
pourcif, *poussif*).   New formations are not uncommon : ' com-
bative, forgetive, talk-at-*ive* '.   The passive application, as in
Shakespeare's ' insuppress*ive* mettle ', is not to be encouraged.

DERIVATION OF VERBS.

14. Derived Verbs are formed from *Nouns*, from
Adjectives, and from *other Verbs*.

Nouns and Adjectives are very frequently used as Verbs
without any change.

I. Verbs are derived from Nouns.

(1.) By *Prefixes*, (§§ 2-5).

(2.) By *Suffixes*.

Native Suffixes.—**-l, el** : ' knee*l*, muff*le*, quibb*le* (quip),
sparkle, throttle '.

-n, en (causative) : ' height*en*, length*en*, strength*en* '.

Classical Suffixes.—**ate** (Lat. supine, *ātum*) .   ' anim*ate*,
culminate, exaggerate, germinate, militate, modulate, populate,
stagnate '.

eer, er (Lat. *āre*, *āri ;* Fr. *-er*) : ' domin*eer* (cp. ' domin*ate* ') ;
cater '.

fy (§ 15) : ' de-i-*fy*, edify, modify '.

ize, ise, (Gr. *izō*, Fr. *iser :* causative) : ' appet*ize*, epitomize,
pulverize, sermonize, subsidize, tantalize, tyrannize '.

ish and **ite.**   See § 16.

(3.) By *change*, (*a*) *of Vowel*, (*b*) *of Consonant*, or
(*c*) *of both*.

(*a.*) 'Bleed' (blood), 'gild' (gold).

(*b.*) 'Bulge (bulk), calve, clothe, halve, house, prize (price), shelve, thieve, wreathe'.

(3.) 'Bathe (bath), breathe, glaze, graze (grass), hitch (hook)'.

Many words are nouns or verbs *according to the place of the accent :* 'àbstract,—abstràct'; 'àccent,—accènt'; 'àugment, —augmènt'; 'còmpound,—compòund'; 'cònflict,—conflìct'; 'còntrast,—contràst'; 'dìgest,—digèst'; 'ìmport,—impòrt'; 'sùbject,—subjèct'; 'sùrvey,—survèy'; 'tòrment,—tormènt'. These are all of Latin origin.

It has also been seen that our language permits the free conversion of a noun into a verb, and the opposite, without any change.

The general effect of these derivations is to enable the meaning of the noun to become active, or to express the fact of its being imparted to something. The chief exception is seen in the negative prefixes.

15. II. Verbs are derived **from Adjectives.**

(1.) By *Prefixes* (§§ 2-5).

(2.) By *Suffixes*.

Native Suffixes.—**-n, en** (causative) : 'blacken, fatten, ripen, shorten, sweeten'.

-r, er (causative) : 'hinder, lower'.

se (causative) : 'cleanse, rinse (cp. Germ. *rein*, 'pure').'

Classical Suffixes.—**ate** (Lat. supine, *ātum*) : 'alienate, celebrate, integrate, participate'.

With formative syllable *-it-* : 'debil-*it-ate*, facilitate, gravitate'.

fy (Lat. *ficare*, Fr. *fier :* causative) : 'clar-i-*fy*, fortify, purify, sanctify.'

ize, is (§ 14) : 'civilize, fertilize, humanize, realize'.

ish. See § 16.

(3.) By *Change of Vowel :* 'fill' (full).

The effect of this conversion is almost uniformly to signify the imparting of the quality connoted by the adjective.

16. III. Verbs are extensively derived **from Verbs.**

(1.) By *Prefixes* (§ 2-5).

(2.) By *Suffixes*.

Native Suffixes.—**k** (frequentative) : 'hark (hear), talk (tell)'.

le (the same) : 'crumple (crimp), dazzle (daze), dribble (drip), grapple (grip), straddle (stride), waddle (wade)'.

er (diminutive and frequentative) : 'batter (beat), flutter, glimmer (gleam), patter (pat), sputter (spit)'.

Classical Suffixes.—**ate** (Lat. supine, *ātum*) : '*create*, dictate, instigate, migrate, navigate '.

With formative syllable *-it-* (frequentative) : ' ag-*it-ate*, cogitate, hesitate, palpitate '.

esce, ish (Lat. *-escĕre; Fr. -iss-* (Lat. *-isc-, -esc-*) in verbs in *-ir,* Lat. *-ire :* growing or tending to) : '*coalesce*, effervesce ; abol*ish*, languish, perish, ravish, relinquish '.

A step further back would sometimes bring us to nouns : 'fam*ish*, fin*ish*, pun*ish* '; or to adjectives : 'flour*ish*, cher*ish*, dimin*ish*, embell*ish*, establ*ish*, replen*ish* '.

ge (Lat. *-icāre,* Fr. *ger*) : 'char*ge*, jud*ge*, -ven*ge* '.

it, ite (Lat. supine *ītum*) : 'ed*it*; exped*ite*, ign*ite* '.   The Latin forms of the two last are from noun roots.

(3.) By *modifying the Vowels,* or *Consonants,* or *both :* 'drip (drop), fell (fall), roost (rest), raise (rise), reel (roll), set (sit) snuff (sniff), dodge (dog), blench (blink), dredge (drag), drench (drink), twitch (tweak), watch (wake), wrench (wring)'.   Most of these derivatives are causative verbs.

(4.) By *postfixing Adverbs and Prepositions :* as 'find *out* ', 'pluck *out* ', 'bear *with* ', 'bring *in* ', 'fall *in* ', 'climb *up* ', 'heave *to* ', 'despair *of* '.   These postfixed words are to be considered in many cases as part of the verb, although not only not fused with it, like the ordinary suffixes, but susceptible of being removed to a distance by the object coming between : 'find *him* out ', 'pluck *it* out '. 'bring *the messenger* in ', 'send *the things* away '.   They often acquire a meaning not explained by the separate meanings of the parts : 'find out ' is no more to be parsed as two words than 'invent '.   Moreover, we find verbal nouns formed from them : 'the looker on ', 'entrance in ', 'goings out ', 'the climber upward '—(Shakespeare).   We may have two different meanings from the same constituents differently placed : as 'overcome ', 'come over '.

To sum up ; in deriving verbs from verbs, we have sometimes little more than a synonyme ('arise '); in other cases, a diminutive, or frequentative force ; and in some instances an intensive effect. The causative verbs are a distinct class.   Among the most important derivatives are those that negative in some way or other the meaning of the simple verb.

DERIVATION OF ADVERBS.

17. Adverbs are formed **principally from Adjectives and Nouns.**

(1.) By *Prefixes.* These have already been exemplified (§ 2-5) : '*a*-bed, -ground, -head ; *a*wry ; *a*-down ; *al*·one, -so ; *be*-fore,

-hind, -sides, -times ; *n*-ever ; -*or* ; *to*-day, -night; *under*ground'.
'*A*pace, apart, across ; *per*-adventure -chance, -haps '.

(2.) By *Native Suffixes.*

ly is now by far the principal ending whereby adverbs are derived from *adjectives :* 'careful*ly*, gently (for 'gentle-ly '), honestly, hopelessly, probably (for 'probable-ly '), smoothly, swiftly '.

Also from *participles :* 'beseechingly, confidingly, disappointingly, falteringly, perplexingly ; unflinchingly ; decidedly, disconnectedly, pointedly ; unweariedly '.

From *nouns :* 'hap*ly*, purposely ; month*ly*, weekly '.

ling, long : 'dark*ling*, flatling ; head*long* '.

meal (division) : 'limb*meal*, piecemeal '.

ward, wards : 'down*ward*(*s*), forward(s) (= for*th*-ward(s)), outward(s)'. ' Fro*ward* ' and ' way*ward* ' are adjectives.

way, way-s : 'straight*way*, no*ways* '.

wise : 'like*wise*, other*wise* '.

Various *inflexional endings* may also be noted :

Genitives end in **s, es, se, ce :** 'always, besides, betimes, needs, nowadays, unawares, upwards ; el*se* (O. E. *elles*) ; once, twice, thrice (older *ones, twies, thries*) '.

The *-t* in some words of this class is an accretion : 'amids*t*, amongs*t*, betwix*t*, whils*t* ', for 'amid*des* ', &c.

Datives : 'seldom, whilom (O. E. *-um*) '. In Oldest English, the adv. was formed from the corresponding adjective by adding *-e*—a dative suffix : *fœst* ('fast ': adj.), *fœst-e* ('fast ': adv.).

Accusatives : 'alway, noway, otherwise, sometime, backward ; then, than '.

Instrumentals : 'the (with comparatives), thus (this), how, why '.

'Here, there, where, hit*her*, thither, whither ', are *locatives* from pronominal roots. 'Hence, thence, whence ', seem to combine a locative and a genitive suffix : *-n-* + *-ce* (= *es*).

Setting aside the regular formation in '*ly* ', and the instances of inflexional endings, the remaining adverbs are really phrases. One leading class shows a union of preposition (chiefly 'a ') and noun : '*a*-sleep, *be*-sides, *per*-chance '. Others show an adjective and a noun coalescing, the preposition being absent : 'noway, otherwise '.

DERIVATION OF PREPOSITIONS.

18. The chief Prepositions are primitive words of the English language, and have corresponding forms in the other languages of the Indo-European family : 'at, by, for, in, of, on, to, with '.

In 'from', the *-m* is a superlative ending.

Comparative endings appear in a few prepositions : 'after (*af* = *of*, 'from') ; over (O. E. *of-er*, from root of *of*) ; under (compare Lat. *inter :* from *in*). Also in 'ere' (O. E. *æ-r* 'earlier, before ').

'To-*ward*(*s*)' is 'in the direction of', in the direction indicated by 'to '.

A large number of prepositions are really shortened phrases : 'amid(st), beside, behind, &c. '; = in the midst (= *middes-t, mid* being adj. and *t* an accretion) of ', 'by the side of ', &c. 'Like, near, next, &c. ' are adjectives practically used as prepositions, through the omission of 'to': 'like *to* ', 'near to ', &c.

Participles : 'notwithstanding, owing to '.

Classical Prepositions. Simple : 'per, pro, sans '. 'Across ' is a shortened phrase. 'Maugre, minus, round ', adjectives. The chief instances are originally *participles :* 'concerning, during, excepting, regarding, touching ; except(ed), past, save '.

DERIVATION OF CONJUNCTIONS.

19. A very few are simple words of the language : 'and, if, that '.

Nearly all the words that serve as Conjunctions are appropriated from other parts of speech, chiefly and more immediately **from the Adverb and the Preposition.**

Adverbial conjunctions : 'also, likewise, then, further, still, only, therefore, accordingly, else, because, since, as, when '.

'Or, nor ', are condensations of '*other* or either ', '*nother* or neither '.

Prepositional conjunctions : 'but, for, except, after, before, until '. And some of these are fundamentally adverbial.

20. Of all the purposes of forming derivatives, none is of more consequence than the signifying of **negation, contrariety,** or **opposition.**

After expressing a thing, quality, or action, we need to have the means of expressing the absence or negation of the thing. This has been largely provided for in our system of Prefixes and Suffixes, but still not adequately ; and it is useful to know the circumlocutions that are in reserve when these fail us.

The chief *prefixes* are, 'dis, in, mis, n, non, re, un ', and the *suffix* is 'less '. The employment of these has been capriciously

limited ; but the use of negative prefixes to nouns is slowly reviving. Tennyson uses ' *disfame*, *misfaith*, *unfaith*, *un*-charity ', &c.

In some cases we have *separate words* for the opposite of a meaning : ' Light, dark ' ; ' hot, cold ' ; ' light, heavy ' ; ' hard, soft ' ; ' rich, poor ' ; ' industrious, idle ' ; ' north, south ' ; ' pleasure, pain ' ; ' action, passion ' ; ' clever, stupid ' ; ' seeing, blind '.

In technical and scientific language we can prefix ' not '. To signify all colours except white, we may say ' *not*-white ' ; ' me, not-me ', ' round, not-round '.

The chief *circumlocutions* are seen in such examples as the following :—' That was the *very opposite* (or *reverse*) of candour ' : ' that would be *anything but* reasonable ' ; ' very far from reasonable ' ; ' his conduct showed a *great want* (*absence*) of selfishness '. These forms are often used to avoid the harshness of the other more direct negative forms : ' to relate disagreeable truths of a neighbour is *far from innocent* ' ; so, ' far from pretty ' is softer than ' ugly ' ; ' a great want of consideration ' is hardly so strong as ' inconsiderate '.

21. Modified Forms.

The following are examples of *shortened* forms : ' aim ' (O. Fr. *esmer*, Lat. *æstimare*, ' to estimate '), ' alms ' (Gr. *èleèmòsynè*, O. E. *ælmesse*), ' ant ' (O. E. *æmet*, ' emmet '), ' binnacle ' (formerly ' bittacle ' ; Fr. *habitacle*, Lat. *habitaculum*) ; ' brig ' (brigantine), ' bus ' (omnibus), ' cab ' (cabriolet), ' cad ' (cadger), ' change ' (exchange), ' censer ' (incense), ' cess ', (asses), ' cit ' (citizen), ' con ' (for ' contra ', in ' pro and con '), ' consols ' (consolidated moneys), ' coz ' (cousin), ' drawing-room ' (*with*drawing), ' dropsy ' (formerly ' hydropsy ' ; from Gr. *hydrops*, from *hydòr* ' water ') ; ' furl ' (' fardel ', bundle up) ; ' jury-mast, -rudder ' (injury) ; ' larceny ' (Lat. *latrocinium*) ; ' limn ' (illuminate), ' lone ' (alone), ' miss ' (mistress), ' mite ' (minute), mob (O. E. *mobile*, Lat. *mobile* (vulgus), ' easily moved, fickle '), ' parrot ' (Fr. *perroquet*), ' phiz ' (physiognomy), ' prentice ' (apprentice), ' print ' (imprint ; Fr. *empreinte*, ' impression ', *imprimer*, ' print ' ; Lat. *im primere*) ; ' purl ' (purfle, Fr. *pourfiler*, ' to overcast with gold thread '), ' sir ' (Fr. *sire*, *sieur*, Lat. *senior*), ' size ' (assize), ' spite ' (despite), ' sport ' (desport), ' store ' (Fr. *estorer*, Lat. *instaurare*) ; ' tire-woman ' (attire) ; ' story ' (history), ' vail ' (avail), ' van ' (caravan), ' ware ' (aware), ' wig ' (for ' periwig ', itself a corruption of ' peruke ', Fr. *perruque*).

Frequently a word is *assimilated* to a more familiar form, or otherwise changed : ' acorn (O. E. *æcern*, ' of the oak ', as if

'oak-corn') ; 'beaver' (Lat. *fiber* ; transposition of consonants) ; 'cartridge' (corruption of Fr. *cartouche;* as 'porridge' of 'pottage', 'estridge' of 'ostrich') ; 'corporal' (Fr. *caporal,* Lat. *caput*; not connected with *corpus*); 'coy' (Fr. *coi,* Lat. *quietus*) ; 'curse' (in 'not care a *curse*', is for *kers,* an older form of 'cress') ; 'cutlet' (Fr. *côtelette,* dim. from *côte,* Lat. *costa,* '——') ; 'daffodil' (asphodel) ; 'ewer' (O. E. *hwer,* Fr. *aiguière,* from *aigue,* Lat. *aqua,* 'water') ; 'lias' (layers) 'nonce' ('*n*' belongs to the inflexion of the demonstr. adj. : 'for than anes') ; 'oakum' (O. E. *acumba, cemba;* 'what is combed', 'tow') ; 'pox' (pocks) ; 'savelory' (Fr. *cervelas,* from *cervelle,* Lat. *cerebellum,* 'brains'); 'tansy' (Fr. *tanaisie,* Gr. *athanasia,* 'immortality') ; 'whack' (thwack); 'wherry' (ferry). Further examples of shortening, assimilation, and other varieties of change may be seen under the Prefixes, or may be gathered by careful observation in the course of using the etymological dictionary.

Compound Words.

22. Compound words are those that are made up of simple words of independent significance ; as 'day-star', 'sun-beam', 'free-man', 'rose-tinted', 'stout-hearted', 'commander-in-chief'.

As a general rule *the first word qualifies the second.* 'Finger-ring' is a ring for the finger ; '*ring*-finger' is the finger that wears the ring. A 'rose-tree' is a tree of the kind that grows roses ; a '*tree*-rose' is a rose of the kind that grows on trees. A '*ground*-nut' is a nut growing in the ground ; a '*nut*-ground' is a ground for producing nuts,

A *change of accent* is usually required to make two words into a compound word. The crow is a 'bláck bird', not a 'bláck-bird'; a 'réd house' is a house that is *red.* A 'mád house' would be a family all gone deranged ; but a 'mád-house' is a house for receiving mad persons.

> 'Lay thy bow of pearl apart
> And thy *silver shining* quiver.'

This is either 'thy shining quiver made of sílver' (sílver shining), or 'thy quiver shining like silver' (silver-shining). Euphony may sometimes interfere with this rule ; as 'monks-hood', 'well-head', 'hop-pole', which can hardly avoid accent on both members.

Those compound words are often connected with the hyphen. The compound with the hyphen enables us to express a distinction, seen in comparing '*horse-hair*' with '*a horse's*

hair'; the one is the material, without regard to quantity: the other the hair of one horse.

23. Composition of **Nouns**. *Nouns are combined with nearly all the other Parts of Speech;* and in a few cases compound nouns are formed by union of two words belonging to other parts of speech.

Nouns with Nouns.—' Birthday, churchyard, coffeehouse, coppersmith, cornfield, handbook, moonlight, rosebud'. To these we should add 'drawing-room, resting-place, riding-whip, turning-lathe, walking-stick', as the words 'drawing', 'riding', &c., are verbal equivalents to nouns. In 'self-love', 'self' i. substantially a noun.

Sometimes a genitive case-ending is retained : 'craft-*s*-man, herdsman, kinsman, landsman (compare 'sea-man'); catspaw; deathshead; Thursday'. 'Cynosure' (= dog's tail).

In 'Jack-*o*'-lantern', 'Will-*o*'-the-Wisp', 'of' is retained. 'Catamount is a corruption of 'cat o' mountain'. Compare 'aide-*de*-camp, corduroy (Fr. *corde du roi*, 'king's cord ')', &c.

Nouns with Adjectives : 'fortnight, goodwill, greensward, highland, highway, hotbed, midday, redbreast, stronghold'.

Nouns with Verbs : 'cutwater, daredevil, makeshift, pickpocket, singsong, spendthrift, spitfire, stopgap, turncoat'. In these words the verb governs the noun, and the meaning is some person or thing that performs the action indicated. The same meaning is expressed in another class of words by adding 'er' to the compound : 'landowner, peacemaker, shipbuilder, stockbroker, talebearer'. By suffixing '*ing*' the act is expressed : 'shipbuilding', &c. A verb preceded by a noun is rare ; as 'godsend'. 'Bloodshed' is participle joined to noun ; so are 'ormolu', 'treasure-trove'. 'Bakehouse' exemplifies yet another combination : so 'washhouse, drawbridge, drawwell, grindstone, &c.'. Cp. 'scape-goat'.

Nouns with Adverbs : 'by-play, by-word, forethought, ingathering, instep, lockup, onset, out-going, outlaw, out-rider, sundown, up-rising'. These adverbs are to be distinguished from the same words used as prepositions, as will be seen in the following class.

Nouns with Prepositions : 'forenoon, afternoon'. In these the noun is under government by the preposition. In 'afterthought', the meaning of 'after' is adverbial, something 'thought *after*'.

Pronoun and Adjective : 'nonesuch'.

Adverb and Verb : 'outlay, thoroughfare'. Verb preceding: 'breakdown, cast-away, drawback, pinafore, run-away'.

Verb and Verb : 'hear-say, hobnob, make-believe'.

Verb and Preposition : 'go-between'.

24. Composition of **Adjectives.** The chief elements are Adjectives and Participles, with Nouns and (occasionally) with Adverbs.

Noun and Adjective:—'Bloodred, child-like, fancy-free, heartwhole, pitch-dark, sea-green, snow-white'. The noun in most of these instances adds its meaning to or defines the adjective : 'as red as blood', 'green as the sea', &c. In 'headstrong, heart-whole, sinful', the noun is the subject of reference : 'whole as regards the heart'. Numeral and the noun 'fold' : 'twofold'.

Adjective and Adjective : 'pale-blue (blue of a pale shade), red-hot (so hot as to be red)'.

Noun and Imperfect Participle : 'all-seeing, fruit-bearing, heart-breaking, spirit-stirring, truth-telling'. The noun is the object of the transitive participle. It is an adverbial adjunct to the intransitive participle : 'night-walking' is 'walking *by night*'.

Noun and Past Participle : 'awe-struck, coal-laden, heart-felt, home-grown, moss-grown, moth-eaten, sea-born(e), tempest-tossed, thunder-riven, terror-stricken, vine-clad, weather-beaten, woe-begone'.

In all such cases the noun is really adverbial, being the sole representative of an adverbial phrase : 'awe-struck' is 'struck *with awe*'; 'home-grown' is 'grown *at home*', 'ice-built mountains' are 'mountains built *of ice*'. In 'chapfallen', the participle may agree with the noun, or the noun may be regularly adverbial.

Adjective (complement) *and Imperfect Participle :* 'clear-sounding, simple-seeming, stern-looking'.

Adjective or Participle and Adverb.—'All-powerful, far-fetched, high-born, highly-wrought, inbred, overcharged, over-done, well-bred, well-meant'.

Verb and Noun.—'Break-neck (speed), do-nothing (days)'.

Compounds with 'ed', *simulating participles :*

Noun and Noun : 'hook-nosed, lion-hearted, ox-eyed, '.

Adjective and Noun : 'able-bodied, bandy-legged, four-sided, long-headed, Roman-nosed, sober-minded, warm-hearted, weak-kneed'.

25. Composition of **Verbs.**

Noun and Verb: ' back-bite, brow-beat, way-lay '.

Adjective (complement) *and Verb*: ' ful-fil, rough-hew, safeguard, vouchsafe, white-wash '.

Adverb and Verb: ' cross-question, doff (do off), don, fore-tell, gain-say '.

26. Composition of **Adverbs.**

Noun and Noun: ' length-ways ', ' sideways '.

Adjective and Noun: ' always, likewise, otherwise, some-times, straightway '.

Adverb and Adverb: ' as (= al-so), whereas, thenceforward '.

Adverb and Preposition: ' hereupon, whereby, whereof '.

Adjective and Adverb: ' nowhere, somehow '.

Complex compounds: nevertheless, notwithstanding, more-over.

27. Prepositions are compounded of one another: ' into ', ' within ', ' without ', ' upon ', ' throughout '.

' But ' (as adverb, preposition, or conjunction) is compounded of ' by ' (be) and ' out ' (like the Scotch phrase ' out by '). Originally it signified closeness with separation, and its various meanings are in accordance with this.

28. Compounds, disguised and assimila-ted.

Many words that are really compound have lost the appear-ance of compounds, and look like simple words; and in other cases, a simple word has been corrupted into a compound form; and it often happens that one or both parts of a real or simulated compound have been assimilated to some other (probably better known) words, with which, however, they have no radical connexion.

' Apricot ' (older ' apricock ', Fr. *abricot*, Lat. (*malum*) *præ-cox*, ' early ripe (apple) '); ' as ' (O. E. *als, alse, eall-swa*, ' al-so '); ' ballast ' (O. E. *bat-last*, ' boat-load '); ' barley ' (§ 8, 1, (3), (*c*)); ' barn ' (O. E. *berern*, ' *bere-ærn* ', ' bere-place or barley-house '); ' bice ' or ' bise ' (for O. E. *asure-bice*, Fr. *bes-azur*, ' an *inferior* blue '); ' biscuit ' (Fr., from Lat. *bis coctus*, ' twice cooked '); ' bridal ' (O. E. *bryd-ealu*, ' bride-ale or -feast '); ' burglar ' (Fr. *burglaire*, Lat. *burgi-latro*, ' *burg-* or house-robber '); ' bustard ' (Sp. *abutarda*, Fr. *ou(s)tarde*, Lat. *avis-tarda*, ' slow bird '); ' chaffer ' (*chap-fare*, ' way or course (*fare*) of bargaining (*chap*, O. E. *ceap*) '); ' constable ' (Fr. *connétable*, Ital. *conestabile*, Lat. *comes stabuli*, ' count of the

stable', 'master of the horse'); 'cormorant' (Fr.; Ital. *corvo marino*, 'sea-crow'); 'coverlet' (Fr. *couvre-lit*, 'cover-bed': not a dim. from 'cover'); 'curfew' (Fr. *couvre-feu*, 'cover-fire'); 'daisy' ('day's-eye'); 'every' (O. E. *æfer-œlc*, 'ever-each'); 'futtocks' ('foot-hooks', or 'foot-locks'); 'gospel' (O. E. *god-spell*, 'good news'); 'gossamer' ('God's-summer'); 'gossip' (O. E. *god-sib*, 'God-related', orig. 'sponsor'); 'gozzard' (= goose-herd); 'greatling fishery' (great line); 'groundsel (O. E. *grund-swelige*, 'ground-dwelling or -covering' plant); 'groundsil', 'grunsel' (O. E. *grund-syl*, 'ground-sill' or -base, threshold); 'halliards' (or 'halyards', that is 'haul-'yards'); 'handsel' (O. E. *hand-selan* or -*syllan*, 'hand -to give'); 'heifer' (O. E. *hea-fore*, 'stall-cow'); 'huzzy' (O. E. *hus-wif*, 'house-wife'); 'icicle' (O. E. *is-gicel*, 'ice-congealed lump, -cone': cp. Germ. *kegel*); 'janizary' (Turkish *yeni-ischeri*, 'new-troops'); 'jeopardy' (Fr. *jeu parti*, Lat. *jocus partitus*, 'a divided game, an even chance'); 'julep' or 'julap' (Arab. *julab*, Pers. *gul-ab*, 'rose-water'); 'kerchief' (Fr. *couvre-ch(i)ef*, 'cover-head'); 'lady' and 'lord' (See INFLEXION, *Gender*, § 3); 'lammas' (O. E. *hlaf-mœsse*, 'loaf-mass, or -feast'); 'lamprey' (Fr. *lamproie*, Lat. *lampetra*, 'lambo-petra', 'lick-rock'); 'liquorice' (Gr. *glykyrrhiza, glykys-rhiza*, 'sweet-root'); 'lute' (Arab. *al-ʻud*, 'the wood'); 'manure' (= 'manœuvre', Fr.; from *mainœuvre*, Lat. *manus-opera*, 'hand-work'); 'marshal' (O. H. Germ. *marah-scalh*, 'horse-servant', O. Fr. *mareschal*: compare 'seneschal', *senc-scalh*, 'old servant'); 'midriff' (O. E. *mid-hrif*, 'mid-body'); 'mole' (O. E. *mold-weorp*, 'mould-thrower'); 'neighbour' (O. E. *neah-bur*, 'near-dweller'); 'nostril' (O.E. *nasthyrla*, *nose-thyrel* or -*thril*, 'nose -doorlet' (cp. Germ. *thür-le*, nose-hole)'); 'oleander' (corruption of 'rhodo-dendron'); 'orchard' (O.E. *ort-yard, ort-geard, wyrt (wort)-geard*, 'root- or herb-garden'); 'osprey' (Fr. *orfraie;* a corruption of *ossifrage*, Lat. *ossifraga*, 'bone-breaker'); 'pastime' ('pass-time'); 'porcupine' (Ital. *porco-spinoso*, Lat. *porcus spinosus*, 'thorny, prickly hog'); 'porpoise', 'porpess' (Ital. *porco pesce*, Lat. *porcus-piscis*, 'hog(like)-fish'); 'prince' (Fr.; Lat. *princeps*, from *primus-capio*); 'prithee' ('I-pray-thee'); 'quandary' (Fr. *qu' en dirai-je*? 'what shall I say of it?'); 'samphire' (corruption of Fr. *Saint Pierre*, the herb of St. Peter); 'scabbard' (O. E. *scauberk*: Icel. *skafabiarga* (Germ. *bergen*), 'scraper (sharp instrument) -to hide'); 'scaffold' (O. Fr. *eschafaud, escadofaut*, orig. a platform whence to see a tourney, Lat. *scadafaltum*, from *ex* and *cadafaltum*, Ital. *catafalco*, from Romance *catar*, 'to view, look', and Teutonic *falco*, 'a planking'); 'sheriff' (O. E. *scir(e)-gerfa*, 'shire-reeve, district- or county-governor'); 'steward (O. E.

sti (Icel. *stia*)-*weard*, 'sty-ward', 'domestic affairs-manager ');
'stirrup' (O. E. *sti(ge)-rap*, 'mounting -rope '); 'such' (p.
50, § 4); 'tawdry' (said to be for *St. Awdrey*, St. Etheldreda);
'threshold' (O. E. *threscwald, threswold*, 'threshwood');
'vamp' (Fr. *avant-pied*); 'vinegar' (Fr. *vin-aigre*, 'sour-
wine '); 'viper' (Lat. *vipera*, for *vivi-pera*, from *vivus-pario*
'bring forth -alive '); 'walrus' (Germ. *wallross* ; from *wal*, as
in 'whale', Germ. *wallfisch*, and *hross*, 'a horse '); 'warlock'
(O. E. *wær-loga*, 'treaty-breaker or -liar '); 'wassail' (O. E. *wæs
hæl*, 'be of (good) health ', 'your good health !'); 'which' (p. 33,
§ 13); 'whisky' (Kelt. *uisge-beatha*, 'water of life '); 'window'
(Icel. *windauga*, 'wind-eye '); 'woman' (O.E. *wifman*).

'Beef-eater' (corruption of Fr. *buffetier*, one that attends at
the *buffet* or sideboard); 'causeway' (or 'causey': Fr. *chausée*,
Lat. *calcāta*); 'Charter-house' (Fr. *Chartreuse*, 'Carthusian
monastery '); 'crayfish' or 'crawfish' (Fr. *écrevisse*, Germ.
krebiz, krebs); 'lanthorn' (former spelling of 'lantern ');
'lanyard' (or 'laniard'; Fr. *lanière*, 'thong '); 'pent-house'
(O. E. *pentice*, Fr. *appentis*, 'sloping shed '; as if from '*pente-
house*', 'slope-house '); 'pickaxe' (O. E. *pikois* ; the ending
assimilated to 'axe '); 'rakehell' (O. E. *rakel, rakle*, 'rover,
rioter '); 'runagate' (for 'renegate, renegade '); 'sparrow-
grass' (for 'asparagus '). In Scotch, 'misdemeanours' and
sometimes become 'misty manners', and 'colocynth pills ', in
one district at least, are called '*Collieston* pills'.

'Bandog' (= '*band-dog*', chained dog); 'Bedlam'
('Bethlehem '); 'belfry' (Fr. *beffroi*; O. Fr. *berfroi*, Lat.
berfredus, belfredus; Germ. *bervrit, bervrit*, 'watch-tower,
tower for defence '; *berg-* or *burg- friede*, from *bergen-frieden*
'to protect- to watch or defend '); 'Billy Ruffian' (Bellerophon);
'blunderbuss' (Dutch *donderbus*, Germ. *donnerbüchse*, 'thunder-
gun '); 'brimstone' (= O. E. *bren-ston*, 'burn-stone ');
'buckwheat' ('*beech*-wheat '; cp. Germ. *buch-weitzen* ');
'carnival' (given as *carnem vale*, 'farewell to flesh ', and also
as *carnis levamen*, 'solace of the flesh '); 'catamount' (§ 23);
'chance-medley' (for Fr. *chaude-melée*, 'a hot fight or affray ');
'checkmate' (Fr. *échec et mat*, Germ. *schactmatt*, Pers. *shâh
mât*, 'the king is dead'. Assimilated to verb 'check ');
'claymore' (Gael. = 'sword-great '); 'cockchafer' (= '*clock*
(Scotch; = 'beetle ') -chafer '); 'cockloft' (= '*cob* or *cop*
(= top)-loft '); 'cockswain' (or 'coxen ', = '*boat*-swain ');
'counterpane' (corruption of 'counterpoint', Fr. *contre-pointe*,
for '*courte-pointe*', O. Fr. *coulte-pointe*, from Lat. *culcita puncta*,
'stitched-*cushion* '); 'cowslip' (for 'cow*sleck* ': see § 8, 1, (3),
(c)); 'coxcomb' ('cock's-comb '); 'cupboard' (for 'cup-*bur* or
-bower '); 'curtail' (Fr. *court-tailler*, 'cut short '); 'domesday-

book' (for *domus Dei*, 'house of God'. Also derived simply
from *dom*, 'judgment') ; 'dormouse' (Fr. *dormeuse*, 'the
sleeping animal' ; merely, perhaps, assimilated to 'mouse') ;
'everywhere' (for *ever-gehwær*, *æver-ihwar* : not from 'every') :
'fieldfare' (O. E. *feala-for*, *fealror*, from its pale yellow or dun
(*fealu*) colour) ; 'furlong' (O. E. *furh-* or *fur-lang*, 'furrow-
long') ; 'gooseberry' (corrupted from Germ. *kraus(el)-beere*,
'the rough berry') ; 'handywork' (O. E. *hand-geweorc* : not
from 'handy') ; 'hangnail' (for 'agnail' : O. E. *angnægl*, from
ange-nægel, 'sore nail'. The Scotch often use 'ragnail', the
broken bits of flesh appearing like *rags*) : 'harbour' (O. E.
hereberga, from *here-beorgan*, 'army -to protect' : orig. 'lodging
or station for an army') ; 'hauberk' (O. Fr. *hauberc*, O. E.
h(c)alsbeorg ; from *h(e)als-beorgan*, 'neck- to protect') ;
'hautboy' (or 'oboe' : Fr. *hautbois*, 'high-wood', Ital. *oboe*) ;
'humble-pie' (for '*umble*-pie', pie made of (*h*)*umbles* or
numbles (Fr. *nombles*), entrails of deer ; assimilated to
'humble') ; 'husband' (O. E. *husbonda*, 'house-cultivator,
-possessor, -master' ; cultivator of soil attached to a house) ;
'jerked-beef' (Chilian *charqui*) ; 'Jew's harp' (perh. from Fr.
jeu, 'toy') ; 'Jerusalem-artichoke' (for Ital. *girasole*, 'sun-
flower') ; 'John Dory or Doree' (Fr. *jaune dorée*, 'golden-
yellow' ; if not a corruption of *il janitore*, 'the gate keeper', the
fish being so called in the Adriatic, in reference to St. Peter) ;
'jollyboat' (for '*yawl*-boat') ; 'keelson' (Dan. *köl-svin*, or
-*svill*, -*syll*, 'keel-sill') ; 'kickshaw' (Fr. *quelque chose*,
'something') ; 'landgrave' (Germ. *land-graf* ; *graf*, 'earl') ;
'linsey-woolsey' (linen and wool) ; 'loadstar' or 'lodestar',
'loadstone' or 'lodestone' (from 'lead', O. E. *lædan*, *lad*.
Perh. in the last case there is also a confusion with '*Lydian*
stone' : cp. 'magnet' = 'magnesian stone') ; 'loggerhead'
('log-head') ; 'maulstick', mahlstick, mostick' (Germ.
malerstock 'painter's-stick') ; 'nightingale' (O. E. *nihte-
gale*, Germ. *nachtigall*, 'night-singer') ; 'peacock' (O. E.
pawa, Fr. *paon*, Lat. *pavonem*) ; 'pea-jacket' (Dutch *pije*,
'coarse thick cloth') ; 'purview' (Fr. *pourvu*, 'provided (that)') ;
'quinsy' (O. E. 'squinancy', Fr. *esquinancie*, Gr. *kyn-angke*,
'dog-throttling') ; 'rosemary' (Lat. *ros marinus*, 'dew of the
sea') ; 'summerset' or 'somersault', &c. (p. 234, 'supra') ; 'tit-
mouse (O. E. *tit* (little)-*mase* (little), 'small-sparrow') : 'walnut'
(O. E. *wealh hnut*, 'foreign-nut') ; 'Welsh rabbit' ('rare-bit') ;
'whitlow' (prov. Engl. *whickflaw*, = *quick-flaw*, 'living sore') ;
'wiseacre' (Germ. *weissager*, 'wise-sayer') ; 'woodbine'
('-bind') ; 'wormwood' ('-wort', -*wyrt*, 'herb, plant') ;

Phrases.—'Cat-o'-nine-tails', 'fail-me-never', 'forget-me-
not', 'good-for-nothing', 'hole-and-corner', 'knock-me-down',
'ne'er-do-well', 'out-of-the-way'.

SYNTAX.

Syntax explains the mode of arranging words in sentences.

The Syntax of English is comparatively simple, from the absence of Inflexions.*

There are **three leading processes or principles** that regulate the joining together of words into sentences : these are *Concord, Government,* and *Order.* The syntax of our language depends principally upon the last ; the two first, concord and government, presuppose inflexions, and are wanting in a language according as these are wanting.

Syntax is rendered more simple and intelligible by the **analysis of sentences,** which ascertains what is common to all sentences, and shows how the different parts are related to each other.

THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

I. Every sentence consists of two parts, the Subject and the Predicate : 'gold is precious'; 'gold' *(subj.),* 'is precious' *(pred.).*

For the purpose of explaining the Parts of Speech, it was necessary at the outset to describe the two principal divisions of the sentence, and the manner of enlarging or extending each of them by the use of qualifying words.

2. Sentences are Simple, Complex, and **Compound.**

A *Simple* Sentence **contains one Subject and one finite Verb :** 'the patience of Job is proverbial'.

* Dr. Johnson, in his grammar, dismisses the subject of syntax in a few lines, remarking that 'our language has so little inflexion or variety of terminations, that its construction neither requires nor admits many rules'.

A *Complex* Sentence, while containing but one principal Subject and one principal Predicate, has two or more finite Verbs: 'the event *happened*, as it was *foretold*'.

A *Compound* Sentence contains two or more principal Sentences: 'the individual dies, but the race endures'.

The Simple Sentence.

3. The Simple Sentence contains one Subject and one finite Verb.

These may, however, assume enlarged and complicated forms. The most elementary form is seen in such examples as 'the sun warms', 'water drowns'. The more extended forms may be considered as growing out of this.

4. (I.) The primary elements (Subject and Predicate) may have one or more secondary elements or adjuncts tacked on to them; as 'the (tropical) sun (thoroughly) warms (the ground)'.

Here the *subject* is enlarged by the qualifying word 'tropical'; the *predicate* is enlarged by adding an object—'the ground', and by the adverb 'thoroughly'. This exemplifies the enlarged simple sentence, containing both the primary elements (noun and verb) and the secondary elements (adjective and adverb).

5. (2.) Both the primary and the secondary elements, as represented by the Noun, Verb, Adjective, and Adverb, may undergo transformations and expansions.

6. The Subject, whose type is the Noun, may be also a Pronoun, or an Infinitive (PARTS OF SPEECH—*Noun*): '*he* lives'; '*to work* is the lot of men'; '*working* is often fatiguing'.

The infinite forms may take an object and qualifying words, whence it is very common to have an expanded infinitive phrase as the subject of a sentence: '*to hear a good orator* is rare'; '*to work hard* is the fate of many'; '*to speak the truth at all times* is reckoned a duty'; '*reading much* is not the only way to knowledge'.

The infinitive may have a subject, as well as an object and qualifying words ; this is effected by prefixing 'for' : '*for a prince* to be reduced by villany to my circumstances is calamity enough '. Strictly, however, this is merely an inversion for ' to be reduced is calamity enough *for a prince* '.

The Object, or completion of the transitive Predicate, having also a Noun for its type, undergoes the same transformations as the Subject : 'the dog follows *him* '; 'John likes *working* (or *to work*) '; 'leave off *shrieking*, and begin *considering* '; 'every one likes *to hear good news* '.

The rule that one verb governs another in the infinitive is merely a way of saying that an infinitive can be the object of a sentence in place of a noun, or that one verb can govern another only when that other is in a noun position : ' I begin *to move* ', means ' I begin *the act of moving* '; ' to move ' is the same as ' the act of moving '.

A verbal Noun may take an object in the form of an infinitive expression : 'his proposal *to raise the siege* was approved of by the government '. The noun ' proposal ' contains the active force of the verb ' propose ' : 'he proposed *to raise the siege*, and this was approved of '.

' To ' is not necessary to the infinitive : it is not inserted after the verbs ' have ', ' may ', ' can ', ' shall ', ' will ', ' do ', ' dare ', ' bid ', ' let ', ' make ', ' must ', ' durst ', ' need not ', ' feel ', ' hear ', ' see '. The list might be extended, especially with words of similar meaning : ' wish ', ' intend ', ' help ', ' deign ', &c., and by reference to older writers and poets. There are also frequent exceptions. ' To ' is dropped after the preposition ' but ' : ' he did nothing but read '.

7. The regular Subject or Object may be Enlarged by all the various means of qualifying or modifying the Noun.

I. The Adjective : '*much* anxiety shortens life '; ' we met an *old* soldier '.

This is the regular and usual mode of expressing the attribute of a noun, whether the subject or the object of a sentence. We may include under it the many cases where a noun is used as an adjective : ' *stump* orator ', ' *iron* duke ', ' *tram*-way ', &c. ;

and the few cases where an adverb is so used (elliptically) : 'the church *here*', &c.*

(2.) A Possessive Case : '*the king's* prerogative'; '*his* death'.

Here the possessive acts the part of the adjective by specifying some individual instance of the thing named by the other noun : ' of all prerogatives, the one here spoken of is the one belonging to the king '.

(3.) A Noun in apposition: ' Havelock, *the hero,* is dead ' : ' and David, *the king,* answered Joab, *the captain of the host*', &c.

An infinitive phrase may be in apposition as well as a noun. ' The rule, *to love thy neighbour as thyself,* comprehends our duty to man.'

It is a general principle of language, that words placed together are to be understood as mutually connected, if there be nothing indicated to the contrary.

(4.) A Phrase made up of a Preposition and a Noun : ' a man *of letters*' (a *literary* man) ; ' the right *of pasture*' *;* ' a word *in season*' *;* ' the house *by the wood*' *;* ' men *with wives*'.

We may specify a thing by any circumstance of position or relation to other things, which relationship is usually expressed by a preposition : ' the door *on your right hand*'; ' the property *for sale*' ; ' the church *on the hill*' ; ' the road *to ruin*'; ' the battle *of Hastings*'; ' the captain *with his men*'; ' five *of the*

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* A phrase formed by the infinitive in ' *ing* ' may sometimes take an adjective ; ' *that* burning the capitol was a wanton outrage'. The similar construction, ' *the* sending them the light', was objected to by Lowth, who considered that there are two equivalent constructions, and these alone admissible, ' (by) sending them', and ' *the* sending *of* them': in this last case, ' sending ' being a verbal noun. But these are not in all cases equivalent : ' he expressed the pleasure he had in *hearing* the philosopher' and ' in *the hearing of* the philosopher', have different meanings.

With a verbal noun we do not now omit the article : ' by (the) *observing* of this rule you will gain your point'; ' at a or the *meeting* of council '; ' by (the) *comparing* of authorities'. The omitting of ' of' after the verbal noun often makes a total change of the meaning : ' the meeting *of* the council', and ' the meeting the council ', are both allowable, but for different significations. ' When the Lord saw it, he abhorred them, because of *the* provoking *of* his sons and daughters'; ' because of provoking his sons ', and ' because of *the* provoking his sons': the first ' provoking ' is a verbal noun, the second and the third, infinitives.

seven' ; 'the chief *among ten thousand*'.   The infinitive being the same as a noun, we may include such cases as 'a desire *to rise*'.   The same remark applies to the gerund : 'a house *to let*'.   Most of such examples are elliptical or contracted expressions : 'the church *standing* on the hill ', 'the road *that leads* to ruin ', &c.   'A man *of the world*' is 'a man *taken out* of the world ', and therefore experienced in the affairs of the world.   The full form shows that the real character of the prepositional phrase is *adverbial*.

(5.) A Participial Phrase; that is, a Participle, either alone, or having an object, or qualified by an Adverb: 'a man *carrying a burden* passed a cow *quietly grazing*'.

The participle qualifies or restricts the noun as an adjective would do. 'The minister, *having obtained information of the conspiracy*, ordered all those *concerned in it* to be arrested' : the second participle—'concerned in it ', restricts or defines 'those ', and is therefore a *restrictive* adjunct ; the first—'having obtained ', &c., does not define the 'minister', but supposes him to be defined or ascertained already, and imparts additional information respecting him : it is a contracted form of a compound sentence—'the minister obtained information, *and* ordered ', &c.   It is a *co-ordinating* adjunct.

This mode of contracting a compound sentence exhibits one of the characteristic functions of the participle.   The participial phrase depends for its subject and for its power of affirmation on the finite clause.   'Having gained our purpose, we departed', is the same as 'we gained our purpose, and we departed ' ; but in the contraction, the subject of the first clause is omitted, and the form of affirmation dropped.   There is a very common **error** with reference to this construction : thus '*having failed* in this attempt, no farther *trial* was made'.   Here the participle 'having ' is without a subject, the finite clause supplying a different subject.   The mistake probably arises from confounding the co-ordinating participial adjunct with the participle in the absolute construction : it would be correct to say, 'the attempt having failed, no farther trial was made.   The participial phrase is then complete in itself.

8. The Subject or the Object may be enlarged by a combination of two or more of these modes ; and the adjuncts may themselves be modified by other adjuncts.

(1.) Instead of the simple adjective, we may have an adjective followed by a phrase of reference or of regimen; as 'a man *sufficient in himself*', 'anxious for nothing', 'desirous to please', 'blameless in his life', 'careless of appearances'.

The most usual case of this construction is when the more remote adjunct implies a *reference* to something, or indicates in what point or direction the meaning of the adjective is to be taken; thus 'careless' is qualified or limited by stating the exact matter that the carelessness applies to: 'careless in his person', 'of his money', 'of his life'.

When an adjective seems to govern an infinitive like a verb, this is because of its close alliance to some verb; thus, 'desirous to please' scarcely differs from '*desiring* to please', which is the infinitive or participle (as the case may be) of 'desire'. For the very same reason a noun may seem to have a regimen, as '*the desire* to please'. These are examples of the great freedom that our language allows in substituting one part of speech for another.

(2.) It is very common to have two or more adjectives qualifying the same subject; as 'the *deep Stygian* recesses', 'the *old* man *eloquent*', 'a *good* and *faithful* servant', 'the *Victoria Hotel* Company, *limited*'. Also the possessive and an adjective may be frequently found conjoined: '*Wellington's Peninsular* army'.

(3.) The noun of the prepositional phrase may be qualified by an adjective or the equivalent of an adjective: 'a man *of any sense*'; 'a pearl *of great price*'. With or without this qualification, the prepositional phrase may be conjoined with an adjective: 'a *grown* man *of sense*'; 'a *goodly* pearl *of great price*'; 'a *wary* statesman *in difficult times*'.

(4.) The participial phrase may be combined with other qualifications: 'a *powerful* mind *engaged on great problems*'. Here 'mind' is restricted both by the adjective and by the participle.

As every noun occurring in a phrase may be the subject of new qualifications, the main subject may be enlarged without any other limit than that of becoming too complicated to be easily understood.

All the attributes that constitute the enlargement of the subject may also be predicated of it, as will be seen presently. Things in the attributive relation to a subject are *assumed* to belong to it, instead of being predicated of it: 'a *valiant* man', 'a man *of bravery*', 'a man *having a stout heart*', &c., suppose or assume the characteristic of bravery as belonging to a man, and distinguishing him from the rest of men. If this cannot be assumed, and needs to be asserted, we must predicate it; as 'he *is* valiant, *is* a man of bravery, *is* a man of stout heart', &c.

9. The Predicate may be a single Verb, in which case it is called **simple**; as 'the dog *runs*', 'the sky *brightens*'.

The Predicate is called **complex** when it is **made up of a Verb of incomplete Predication and its complement :** ' the dog *is sagacious* '; ' the sky *grows clear* ' ; ' he *seemed honest* '.

The verb ' **be** ' called the *copula*, is **by pre-eminence the verb of incomplete predication.** Except in the case where it has its proper meaning of *existence*, this verb always requires some subject or attribute joined to it to make a complete predicate : ' Pitt was a *statesman* ' (noun) ; ' the sky is *blue* ' (adjective) ; ' he is *here* ' (adverb) ; ' that was *of no consequence* ' (phrase).

The other verbs of incomplete predication are the *intransitive* verbs—' become ', ' get ', ' grow ', ' fall ', ' live ', ' die ', ' seem ', &c., and the *transitive* verbs—' can ', ' do ', ' shall ', ' will ', ' make', ' call ', ' deem ', ' think ', ' consider ', ' choose ', ' elect ', ' constitute ', ' appoint ', &c. : ' Napoleon *became first consul* ' ; ' he *got better* ' ; ' I *fell asleep* ' ; ' he *grows a man* ' ; ' he *grows tall* ' ; ' he *seemed clever* ' ; ' I *can write* ' ; ' they *were elected members* '.

The **transitive** verbs of incomplete predication have **two constructions**, active and passive. In the passive voice they closely resemble the intransitive ; as ' he *was made*, chosen, elected, appointed, constituted, declared, *first consul* ' ; ' he *is thought*, deemed, considered, *a man of ability* '.

With intransitive verbs, and also with transitive verbs used passively, the completion of the predicate is something affirmed of the *subject* of the sentence : ' he *seemed a god* ', ' the wine *tastes sour* ' ; ' the rope is *made fast* '. Hence the predicate, if a noun or adjective, agrees in case with the subject ; in other words, is considered to be in the nominative.

This remark, however, is of very little importance in the English language, since, in the absence of noun inflexions, it can apply only to the pronouns ; as ' I am *he* '. Even as regards the pronouns, such expressions with the nominative have been called in question by some grammarians, as not in accordance with the genius of our language.

When the verb is transitive, and in the active voice, the complement of the predicate is an attribute of the *object* of the verb ; as ' they elected him *captain* ', ' he left me *destitute* ', ' they made the house *secure* '. When the complement is a verb in the infinitive (' he can *write* ',), the object is attached to this infinitive : ' he can write *French* '.

10. The form of Negation is not to be looked upon as **enlarging the Predicate :** ' the sun does *not* shine ', ' he laughs *not* ', ' the course is now *inexpedient* '.

Every declaratory sentence either affirms or denies, and the denial is not more complicated than the affirmation. In other words, the negative 'not' is considered a part of the predicate rather than an adverbial enlargement of it : 'he laughs *merrily*' shows an enlargement of the predicate ; not so 'he does *not* laugh'.

11. The Predicate, if a Transitive Verb, is completed by means of an Object: 'Cæsar conquered *Gaul*' ; 'he defies *opposition*' ; 'they constituted *me* umpire'.

It has already been seen that the object is of the same nature as the subject. It may be noun, pronoun, or infinitive ; it may be enlarged by an adjective, a possessive case, a noun in apposition, a phrase made up of preposition and noun, a participial phrase.

12. The Predicate is enlarged by an Adverb, or an Adverbial phrase: 'he rose *early*' ; 'she sings *well*' ; 'they returned *in good order*'. These are called *Adverbial Adjuncts* of the Predicate.

An adverb or adverbial phrase, as has been seen, expresses any circumstance of place, time, degree, certainty or uncertainty, cause, instrument, manner, connected with the action : 'we met *in the town*' ; 'it happened *long ago*' ; 'it concerns *us little*' ; 'assuredly you will find it so' ; 'he died *of fever*' ; 'the city was taken *by stratagem*' ; 'he cried *with a loud voice*' ; 'the brook murmured *pleasantly*' ; 'he was *naturally (by nature)* kind'.

13. The Adverbial Phrase appears in various forms :

(I.) **A Noun** : 'we walked *a mile*' ; 'it weighs *a pound*' ; 'they ran *a race*'.

(2.) **A Preposition and Noun** : 'he went *of necessity*' ; 'they watched *by day* and *by night*'.

The adverbial adjunct of Preposition and Noun is sometimes spoken of as the *indirect object* : 'he gave money *to the poor*' ; 'they accused him *of conspiracy*, and condemned him *to a fine*'.

In these examples the verb has a direct object which it governs, —'gave *money*', 'accused *him*', 'condemned *him*',— and what seems a second object required to specify the action completely. But these indirect objects are better viewed as

adverbial adjuncts, qualifying the action of the verb. When we say 'they condemned him *to a fine*', we indicate by the words 'to a fine' something regarding the *manner* of his condemnation.

In such constructions as 'they saluted him *Emperor*', some grammarians consider 'emperor' (the completion of the predicate) as a second or indirect object.

(3.) A Noun qualified by some adjunct : 'he rose *his height*'; 'we arrived *last night*'; 'let me die *the death of the righteous*'.

The noun in these constructions is in the objective case. In some instances there is an ellipsis of a preposition : 'we arrived *on* or *during* last night'. Also in the case of the simple noun used adverbially,—'they ran *a race*', the noun is now regarded as in the objective, there being an ellipsis of a preposition. In the expression 'let me die *the death of the righteous*', the meaning is 'after the *manner* that the righteous die', which is obviously an adverbial signification.

(4.) A Participle or a Participial Phrase : 'they went along *singing*'; 'he stood *gazing on the scene below*'.

In most instances this adjunct may be considered as a separate clause contracted into a participial phrase : 'they went along, *and sang* (as they went)'; 'he stood, *and gazed*'. For it will be seen that the participle is in apposition with the *subject* to the verb : 'they—singing', 'he—gazing'.

When the Participle agrees with a Subject different from the Subject of the Verb, the Phrase is said to be in the **Absolute Construction**: '*the sun having risen*, we commenced our journey';. '*this said*, he sat down'.

> 'Then, as a gallant bark from Albion's coast
> *(The storms all weather'd* and *the ocean cross'd)*
> Shoots into port, &c'.—(Cowper.)

The absolute case, or the case of a detached participial phrase with a subject of its own, differs in different languages, but grammarians have for the most part agreed that in English it is **the nominative**; accordingly, the following are deemed correct constructions :—

> 'Then I shall be no more ;
> And Adam, wedded to another Eve,
> Shall live with her enjoying : *I extinct*'.—(Milton.)

> ' I shall not lag behind, **nor err**
> The way, *thou leading*. ~ (Milton.)

> ' On these and kindred thoughts intent I lay
> In silence musing by my comrade's side,
> *He also silent*.'—(Wordsworth.)

The objective, corresponding to the oldest English dative, was till recently not uncommon. Tillotson has :—' he made as wise and true proverbs as anybody else has done since, *him* only excepted, who ', &c.*

' Notwithstanding ', ' pending ', ' during ', which seem to govern a noun in the manner of a preposition, are in reality absolute participles : ' *notwithstanding our losses* we shall persevere '; ' *during* the day '; ' *pending* the trial '. The natural order would be ' our losses notwithstanding ', ' the day during, or continuing ', ' the trial pending ' ; and in the instance of ' notwithstanding ', this order is not uncommon.

' Except ' is a remnant of the Latin ablative absolute : ' *except this* ', or ' *this excepted* '. ' Save ' and ' past ' are also transformed past participles.

The Subject in the Participial construction is sometimes omitted, and then the Participle is used **impersonally** : ' *granting* this to be true, what is to be inferred from it ? '

There might seem to be here an omission of ' I ', or ' we ',—' I granting ', &c. ; the subject, being either quite indefinite and immaterial, or perfectly well understood, is left unexpressed. As regards the common expression ' *considering* all these things ', &c., a different view is sometimes taken. In old English the words ' being ' and ' considered ' often introduced absolute phrases. ' Natheless, *considered* his distresse '—(Chaucer) ; that is, ' his distress (being) considered '; ' all things considered '. In modern English the active participle has been substituted for the passive, either from overlooking the true construction, or from the disposition to use the active participle with a passive meaning. On this view,

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* Mr. Ernest Adams maintains that the *dative* ought to be the absolute case in modern English, as it was in the earliest English. He properly remarks that the ' *meaning* conveyed by those absolute words cannot be expressed by a true *nominative* '. In the classical languages the absolute case is not the nominative. Dr. Latham is of the same opinion. In all probability, the nominative was fixed upon from some random instances, without any deliberate consideration. As it is only in the pronouns that the case is seen, and as examples of both constructions are to be found in good writers, there is some ground for contending that *usage leaves the matter open*.

we may suppose that the expression 'granting this to be true', is an equivalent of 'this granted'.

The phrase 'generally speaking' may be best explained by supposing an omission of the subject ('I', 'we', or 'one').

(5.) An Infinitive or a Gerund : 'he is a fool *to throw away such a chance*' (infinitive with prep.) ; 'the courtier stoops *to rise*' (gerund).

The infinitive is so closely allied to the noun as to act the part of a noun-phrase when preceded, as it usually is, by the preposition 'to'. 'He is a fool', and the manner or circumstance or explanation of his being so is 'for the throwing away of the chance'.

The gerund is known from its expressing end, or purpose : 'What went ye *to see*?' Hence it is an adverbial adjunct of purpose or intention when following another verb : 'he went abroad *to make* his fortune'.

The Complex Sentence.

14. A Complex Sentence, while consisting of one principal Subject and Predicate, contains two or more finite Verbs : 'I *saw* that something *was* wrong'; 'no one can say how the thing happened'.

The part containing the principal Subject and Predicate is called the **principal clause ;** the other part, the **Subordinate Clause,** or Clauses: 'I saw' (principal) 'that something was wrong' (subordinate).

We may have a plurality of subordinate clauses in the same relation to the principal ; as 'we were told *that the messenger had just arrived, and had seen the general*'. This makes a Compound sentence, each member of which is complex. At other times the subordination is carried to the second or even a higher degree ; as 'I know not by *what fate it comes* (1) *that he is always against me* (2), *when I try to rise above the position* (3) *that I now occuppy* (4)'.

15. Subordinate Clauses are of three kinds, according as they are *representative of the Noun, of the Adjective, or of the Adverb.*

They are thus divided into **Noun** Clauses, **Adjective** Clauses, and **Adverbial** Clauses.

It has been seen that among the substitutes for the Noun is included a Clause, and so for the Adjective and for the Adverb.

16. The Noun Clause occupies the place of the Noun.

It may be the **subject** or **object** of the Principal Clause: as '*that he had been rash* was apparent to all'; '*I saw *that the waters had risen*'.

The noun clause is, as it were, the expansion or equivalent of a noun or noun phrase: '*his rashness* was apparent'; 'I saw *the rise* of the waters'. 'I wish *the happiness of all men*' (*that* all men should be happy).

The Noun Clause may be **in apposition** to some Noun; as 'the idea *that any one should challenge his right* had never crossed his mind'.

It may be the **completion of the Predicate**: '*the consequence was *that we achieved a victory*'.

When a noun clause is the subject of a sentence it is very common to use the word 'it' as the grammatical subject of the principal verb, and to place the noun clause at the end: '*it* is certain *that the river may be crossed*'. The noun clause is then in apposition to 'it'.

The objective relation, which belongs properly to verbs, may be sustained also by **nouns and adjectives**; hence these are **sometimes followed by noun clauses**: thus, 'there is no *proof that he did this*'; 'I am *sure that this is so*'; 'I do this in the *hope that he will deserve it*'. But, as already remarked (§ 8), these nouns and adjectives have the full force and meaning of verbs: they are the same as, 'there is no *evidence capable of proving* that he did this'; 'I *believe* that this is so'; 'I do this because *I hope* that he will deserve it'.

17. Noun Clauses are introduced by 'That', or by some interrogative word: as 'what', 'when', 'whence', 'how', 'why', &c.

'That' is the *most usual* connective. Properly speaking, it is the demonstrative 'that', followed by a clause instead of a noun: 'I know *that*'—viz., a certain fact or circumstance affirmed in the noun clause—'we shall soon arrive'.

The conjunction is *frequently omitted before an objective clause*: 'I fear *we shall be late*'; 'he said *he would do it forthwith*'.

The verb ‘doubt’, preceded by ‘not’, is sometimes followed by ‘but that’ : ‘I do not doubt *but that* we shall know the whole’. The ‘but’ in this case is, however, unnecessary and inelegant.

The interrogative connectives are seen in the following examples : ‘*how* it happened is a mystery’; ‘you know *who* I am, and *where* I came from’; ‘we cannot say *how* America was first inhabited’; ‘tell me *where* I shall find the master’; ‘it is uncertain *whether* he will come’; ‘science teaches us *why* the fall of the mercury portends rain’; ‘he asked me *how* old I was’; ‘*whoever* gives information will be rewarded’.

In such cases the subordinate clause is really a question which the principal clause embodies in some form or other. This construction is sometimes called the *indirect question.*

It is interesting to note the *contraction of these clauses into infinitive phrases:* ‘they knew not *where to go—what to do— who to look to—how to act—when to begin*’ : ‘*how not to do it*’; ‘I believe the man (*to be*) *guilty*’; ‘he denied *having used that expression*’.

Instead of the interrogative ‘whether’, we find the conjunction ‘if’ sometimes employed : ‘he asked *if* that was my opinion’. Being against analogy, and also uncalled for, this practice should not be followed.

THE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE.

18. When a clause limits or qualifies a Noun or Pronoun, it is of the nature of an Adjective: ‘men *that are selfish* (*selfish* men) never win our esteem’; ‘I remember *the* place *that he occupied (the by-him-occupied* place ; *his* place)’. Hence these are called **Adjective Clauses.**

An Adjective Clause may be found in any place of the sentence where a Noun may occur for an Adjective to qualify.

1. *With the Subject :* ‘the rains *that have just fallen* will do much good’; ‘joy *that is noisy and intemperate* is of short duration’; ‘he *that sows* will reap’.

2. *With the Object :* ‘we met the man *that we had seen in the morning*’; ‘I love them *that love me*’.

3. *In Adverbial Adjuncts :* ‘in the day *that thou eatest thereof*, thou shalt die.

19. The Adjective Clause, in its fundamen-

tal restrictive application, should be intro-
duced by the restricting relative 'that', or
its equivalents. 'The man *that* is wise' ('the *wise*
man'); 'uneasy lies the head *that* wears a crown'.

'The house *that* Jack built', 'any one *that* chooses to inquire',
'I want a man *that* will share my burdens', are constructions
with the restrictive adjective clause, and are best introduced by
'that'. The equivalents of 'that' are '(such) as', 'but',
'when', and 'where', with its compounds 'whereof', &c. (pp.
38-46)'. 'A horse *such as* you want is not easily to be found';
'he came at the time *when* I expected him'; 'the son of man
had not a place *where* he might lay his head'; 'the point
wherein you are mistaken is this'; 'I know a bank *whereon*
the wild thyme grows'.

When the restrictive relative is *in the objective case, it is often
omitted* : 'I have found the book *(that)* you want'. We may
also say (colloquially) 'this is all (   ) I have'. The omission
in the *nominative* case leads to an ungrammatical construction
(§ 78).

Some attention is necessary to distinguish adjective clauses
preceded by 'who', 'what', 'when', 'where', 'wherein',
from noun clauses expressing the indirect question : 'tell me
where he lives' (*noun* clause); 'this is the place *where he lives*'
(*adjective* clause). The adjective clause must always have a
subject which it qualifies.

The adjective clause may in certain cases be *contracted into an
infinitive phrase,* thereby becoming more terse : 'the son of
man had no place *where to lay his head*' (no place *that he might
lay his head in*); 'you have no cause *to hold my friendship
doubtful*' (gerund : = no cause *why —on account of which—you
should hold, &c.*).

The Co-ordinating Adjective Clause, which
joins on an additional statement in a convenient way,
is best introduced by 'who' and 'which', or
their equivalents.

'The prince, *who* is an excellent horseman, kept his seat';
'the king, *who* was more prudent than his advisers, accepted
the armistice'; 'let pride, *which* she calls plainness, marry
her'; 'Goethe's heart, *which* few knew, was as great as his
intellect, *which* all knew'; 'some of the dragoons came up to
the hall, *where* they took possession'; 'the Interrex held office
for five days only, *when* a successor was chosen'; 'he is in the

garden of Naboth, *whither* he is gone down to possess it'. (See THE PRONOUN, §§ 17, &c.).

When the subject is of itself vague and undetermined, we are prepared for regarding the accompanying clause as restrictive. When, on the other hand, the subject is sufficiently defined, we then look upon the clause accompaniment as adding new facts ; in other words, as a co-ordinating clause. This consideration and the context generally, are all that we have to guide us in interpreting the meaning of the relatives 'who' and 'which' in modern English style, where they are used in both the senses now mentioned.

THE ADVERBIAL CLAUSE.

20. An Adverbial Clause is the equivalent of an Adverb, and modifies a Verb : ' he went away *after the sun had risen*' (after sunrise).

Adverbial clauses form the greater number of subordinate clauses, and may be divided into as many classes as adverbs, and, like them, may qualify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

(I.) Place : ' we remain *where we are*' ; ' *wherever you go* I will go'.

Such clauses are **introduced by the relative adverbs of place** : 'where', 'whither', 'whence', 'wherever', 'wheresoever', &c. These adverbs both *connect the dependent clause to the principal*, and also *qualify the verb of the dependent clause*. Thus, in the expression ' it stands *where I placed it*', 'where' connects '*I placed it*' with ' it stands', and also qualifies '*I placed it*' by an adverb of place ('there') : ' I placed it *there*, and it stands there still'.

(2.) Time : ' he wrote *as soon as the news arrived*' : ' we left *while he was speaking*' ; ' you may go there *as often as you please*'.

Adverbial clauses of time are **introduced by the relative adverbs of time**—'when', 'while', 'whenever', **and by the prepositions** or the **conjunctions of time**—'before', 'after', 'since', 'ere', 'until', 'as soon as', 'no sooner than', 'just when', 'the moment that', &c.

(3.) Degree : ' the sea is *as deep as the mountains are high*' ; 'the result was greater *than I anticipated*'; '*the more you have, the more* you want'.

There is always some expression denoting comparison in clauses of degree. They are **introduced by** '**than**', '**as**', '**the**'. They are attached to adjectives and adverbs rather than to verbs; the reason being that degree applies more properly to *qualities* than to actions : 'he is *stronger than I am*'; 'he behaves as *well* as was anticipated'.

These adverbial clauses of degree undergo the peculiar ellipsis seen in such examples as 'he is as rich *as Crœsus (is rich)*'; 'he works harder *than ever (he worked hard)*'.

(4.) Certainty or Uncertainty : '*as sure as I speak*, you will repent of this'. Here we have merely the phraseology of *degree* applied to assurance, doubt, or denial.

We may also include under the present head the relation of **Condition**, introduced by 'if', 'unless', 'except', 'though', 'however', &c. : 'we shall reap *if we faint not*'; 'though he slay me, yet will I trust in him*'; 'however you may try*, you will not gain your end'. In sentences containing a condition, the clause expressing the consequence is the principal clause, and the clause expressing the condition, supposition, or concession, is the subordinate clause : 'I will go (*principal*) if it should rain Duke Georges for nine days' (*subordinate*).

(5.) Cause or Reason : the garrison surrendered, *because their provisions failed*'.

These clauses are introduced by the conjunctions 'because', 'as', 'since', &c.

Consequence is expressed by 'so that' : 'a storm arose, *so that* we could not leave the harbour'. For signifying **end or purpose**, 'that', 'in order that', are employed.

(6.) Manner in general. Among the relations not included in the foregoing heads are likeness, unlikeness, and various unclassifiable modes of action : 'he did *as he was told*'.

'Manner' is often expressed by an adverbial adjunct containing an adjective clause ; as 'train up a child in the way *that it should go*'. Here the clause 'that it should go' qualifies the noun 'way', and is not an adverbial clause, though occurring in an adverbial adjunct. The words 'mode', 'manner', &c., occur in the same construction. In the sentence 'we should have arrived sooner, but *that we met with an accident*', the subordinate clause is considered to be a noun clause, governed by 'but' as a preposition ; the entire expression ('but' and clause) being simply an adverbial prepositional phrase.

21. The Adverbial Clause is contracted by omitting the Verb, or by changing it into a Participle : ' *while* (I am) *on this part of the subject* I may remark'; ' *riding* (as we rode) *through the wood,* we met an old man '.

The Compound Sentence.

22. A Compound Sentence contains two or more (Simple or Complex) Sentences united : ' the sun rose, and the mists disappeared '; ' he came, but we did not see him'; ' he was there, else I should not have seen him '.

In these examples the separate clauses are noways dependent on each other. Either assertion might have been made alone ; we might have said ' the sun rose ', or ' the mists disappeared ', separately, without incompleteness of sense ; whereas we could not break up a complex sentence into clauses with independent meaning : ' I will, if I can '. It is true, that when assertions are coupled together in the same period, there is an intention that they should be thought of together, but still they are not such that the one is dependent on the other for a complete meaning.

The co-ordinating conjunctions (PARTS OF SPEECH—*Conjunction*) are so called because they unite co-ordinate clauses.

CONTRACTED SENTENCES.

23. When the Co-ordinate Clauses of a Compound Sentence have the same Subject, the same Predicate, or any other part in common, we may avoid repeating the common part and thereby shorten or contract the expression of the sentence; as ' the sun gives light and (*the sun gives*) heat '; ' either you (*must go*) or I must go '.

One subject may have two or more Predicates, as in the first example now given. One predicate may have a plurality of Subjects ; as ' *Hannibal* and *Cæsar* were great generals '.

There may be a plurality of Objects ; as ' whosoever shall leave *houses* and *lands* for my sake '.

The Adverbial adjunct of the predicate may be the common part : ' he advances and retires *slowly* '.

Often the common part is a Subordinate Clause : 'the evil that men do lives after them ; the good (*that men do*) is oft interred with their bones '.

The cumulative conjunction **'and' does not always indicate a compound sentence,** as there are cases where it joins words or phrases without joining assertions (PARTS OF SPEECH— *Conjunction*). But the alternative conjunction 'or' can couple only clauses. When we say 'he drove a carriage and pair ', 'carriage and pair' makes but one object ; but the use of 'or' excludes a combination of this kind : 'bring either a carriage *or* a saddle horse ' is a contracted sentence.

In co-ordinate contracted sentences **the parts joined by the conjunction must stand in the same relation to the common part.** '*I add* no more and *believe* me yours truly ' is an irregular construction, for the conjunction couples a verb in the indicative—'add ', with another in the imperative. —'believe ' : 'I ' is not the subject of both verbs.

The following are irregular contractions :—

'This dedication may serve for almost any book that *has, is,* or *shall be* published ' : this must be 'has *been,* is, or shall be, published '. 'There are principles in man which *ever have,* and *ever will* incline him to this offence ' ; for 'ever have *inclined,* and ever will incline '.

When **clauses are placed side by side without a conjunction** expressed, or other grammatical link (as a relative pronoun, or a relative adverb), they are sometimes termed **collateral ;** as 'I came, I saw, I conquered ' ; 'this is the way ; that road goes nowhere '. In such constructions a certain rhetorical effect is produced by the ellipsis of the conjunctions.

EXAMPLES OF ANALYSIS.

Simple Sentences.

24. Form of Analysis. In analyzing Simple Sentences the manner of proceeding is as follows :—

I. Set down the **Subject** of the sentence.

II. Set down the **enlargement, or attributive Adjuncts** of the Subject. These may be assumed to be *restrictive,* unless mentioned as *co-ordinating.*

III. Give the **Predicate Verb.** If this be a verb of incomplete predication, state the **Complement** also.

IV. When the predicate is a transitive verb, state the **Object.**

V. Set down the **enlargement, or attributive Adjuncts of the Object.**

VI. Adverbial Adjuncts of the Predicate.

When the various parts may assume different forms, the particular form present should be mentioned.

25. Example :—

> ' Night, sable goddess, from her ebon throne,
> In rayless majesty, now stretches forth
> Her leaden sceptre, o'er a slumbering world.'

I. *Subject,* ' night '.

II. *Attributive adjunct of subject,* ' sable goddess ', *noun in apposition* (with adj. adjunct).

III. *Predicate,* ' stretches ' (or ' stretches-forth ').

IV. *Object,* ' sceptre '.

V. *Attributive adjuncts of object,*
  { 1. ' her '; *possessive adjective.*
  { 2. ' leaden '; *adjective.*

VI. *Adverbial adjuncts of predicate,*
  { 1. ' from her ebon throne '; *phrase of place, prep. and noun.*
  { 2. ' in rayless majesty '; *phrase of manner, prep. and noun.*
  { 3. ' now '; *adv. of time.*
  { 4. ' forth '; *adv. of place.*
  { 5. ' o'er a slumbering world '; *phr. of place, prep. and noun.*

26. ' The neglect to lay down in distinct terms the opposition between the true and the false, has been the occasion of the generally unintelligible character of metaphysics.'

I. *Subject,* ' neglect '.

II. *Attributive adjuncts of subject,*

1. 'the'; *adj., or article.*
2. 'to lay down in distinct terms the opposition between the true and the false'; *infin. phrase* object to the verbal noun 'neglect'. 'In distinct terms', *adverbial adjunct of manner, prel. h r.,* to the verb 'to lay down'; 'the (*attribute to*) opposition', *obj.* of 'to lay down'; 'between the true and the false', *prep. phr.,* adjunct to 'opposition'.

III. *Predicate.*

1. *Verb of incomplete pred.,* 'has been'.
2. *Complement of pred.,* 'the occasion'; *noun,* modified by 'of the generally unintelligible character of metaphysics', *prep. phr.,* the noun 'character' being modified by (1) 'the', *adj.*; (2) 'unintelligible' (*adj.*), qualified in turn by *adv. of extent* 'generally'; 'of metaphysics', *prepl. phr.*

27. 'Having first procured guides, we began our ascent of the mountain.'

I. *Subject,* 'we'; *pron.*
II. *Attributive adjunct of subject,* } 'having first procured guides'; *coordinating participial phrase.*
III. *Predicate,* 'began'.
IV. *Object,* 'ascent'.
V. *Attributive adjuncts of object,* { 1. 'our;' *poss. adj.*
{ 2. 'of the mountain'; *prep. phrase.*

The attributive adjunct of the subject, 'having first procured guides', might be further analysed into verb, object, and adverb.

28. 'There are twenty men here.'

I. *Subject,* 'men'.
II. *Adjunct of subject,* 'twenty', *adj.*
III. *Predicate,* { 1. *Incompl. vb.,* 'are'.
{ 2. *Complem.,* 'here', *adv. of place.*

'There', originally an adv. of place, has entirely lost its force in this application, and is merely a formal means of allowing the inversion of the sentence.

29. ' He gave me a letter to read.'

I. *Subject*, 'he'.
III. *Predicate*, 'gave'.
IV. *Object of verb*, 'letter'.
V. *Adjunct of object*, 'a', *adj. or article*.
VI. *Adverbial Adjuncts* { 1. ' me' (*i.e.*, ' to me '), *dative pron.*
    of predicate, { 2. ' to read', *phr. of purpose (gerund)*.

30. ' It is vain to pretend ignorance of the fact.'

I. *Subject*, 'it,' *anticipative pronoun*.
II. *Adjunct of subject*, 'to pretend ignorance of the fact';
infin. phr. in apposition.

III. *Predicate* { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'is'.
                  { *Complement of predicate*, 'vain', *adj.*

31. ' Who are you ? '

I. *Subject*, 'you', *pron.*

III. *Predicate.* { *Verb of incomplete predication*, 'are'.
                  { *Complement of predicate*, 'who'
                     pronoun.

32. ' In France there was less material for the Reformers to work upon.'

I. *Subject*, 'material'.
II. *Adjunct of Subject*, 'less' ; *adj.*
III. *Predicate*, 'was' (= existed).
VI. *Adverbial Adjuncts of Pred.*:
    1. ' in France' ; *phr. of place, prep. and noun.*
    2. ' for the Reformers' ; *prepl. phr. of purpose or benefit.*
    3. ' to work upon ' ; *phr. of end or purpose, gerund.*
    4. ' there'.   May be set down as formally adverbial, but has
become a mere help to inversion.   (§ 28).
The expression ' for the Reformers to work upon ' may also be
regarded as a contracted equivalent to an adj. clause limiting
' material' ; as if ' less material *that the Reformers might work
upon* '.

33. ' Two may keep counsel, putting one away.'

I. *Subject*, 'two' (see explanation below).

III. *Predicate*, { 1. *Incompl. verb*, 'may'.
                   { 3. *Complem.* ' (to) keep' ; *infin.*
IV. *Object* (of Compl. Infin.), ' counsel'.
VI. *Advl. Adjunct of Pred.*, ' putting one away ' ; *phr. of con-
dition, impersonal participle* (§ 13, (4).).

Strictly, the Subject is 'persons' understood; and 'two', a numeral adj., is limiting Adjunct to the Subject. So 'one' in strictness limits 'person', which is left unexpressed, because easily supplied by every hearer. The omission of the noun throws the force of it upon 'two', which may therefore be allowed to stand as subject.

34. 'Respecting ourselves, we shall be respected by the world.'

I. *Subject*, 'we', *pron.*

II. *Adjunct of Subject*, 'respecting ourselves', *co-ordinating participial phrase*, with the force of an advl. expression of condition modifying the principal clause; = '*if* or *since we respect ourselves*', &c.'

III. *Predicate*, 'shall be respected'.

VI. *Advl. Adjunct of Pred.*, 'by the world'; *prepl. phr. of agency.*

35. 'Leaning my head upon my hand, I began to figure to myself the miseries of confinement.'

I. *Subject*, 'I'; *pron.*

II. *Adjunct of Subject*, 'leaning my head upon my hand'; *co-ordin. partl. phr.* The participle 'leaning' has *obj.* 'head' (limited by the *poss. adj.* 'my'), and *advl. phr. of place or position* 'upon my head' (*prepl.*).

III. *Predicate*, 'began'.

IV. *Object*, 'to figure', *infin.*

V. *Adjuncts of Object*,
{ 1. 'the miseries of confinement'; *obj. to* 'to figure'.
{ 2. 'to myself'; *advl. phrase of end, prepl.*

36. 'Partakers in every peril, in the glory shall they not partake?'

I. *Subject*, 'they'; *pron.*

II. *Adjunct of Subject*, 'partakers in every peril'; *noun in apposition*, with the force of an advl. expression of cause or reason, modifying the principal clause := 'seeing that they have been partakers—have partaken—in every peril'.

The noun 'partakers' is limited by 'in every peril', a prepl. phrase that is formally adjective but really advl., the noun 'partakers' having the force of the verb 'partake', as is seen in the equivalent lengthened expression just given.

III. *Predicate,*   { 1. *Incompl. verb,* 'shall not', (*negative*).
                         2. *Complem.* '(to) partake', *infin.*
VI. *Advl. Adjunct of Pred.,* 'in the glory', *prepl. phr. of reference.*

37. 'To impose fresh taxes on England in defiance of law would, at this conjuncture, have been madness.'

I. *Subject,* 'to impose'; *infin.*
II. *Adjunct of Subject:*
   1. 'fresh taxes' : *obj. to* 'to impose'.
   2. 'upon England'; *advl. prepl. phr. of end.*
   3. 'in defiance of law'; *advl. prepl. phr. of opposition.*
III. *Predicate.*   { 1. *Incompl. vb.,* 'would have been'.
                         2. *Complem.,* 'madness'; *noun.*
VI. *Advl. Adjunct of Pred.,* 'at this conjuncture'; *prepl. phrase of time.*

The Adjuncts of the Subject in this example are in the usual forms of the Object and the Adverbial Adjunct of the Predicate. The reason is that the subject is, not a noun, but the Infinitive of a transitive verb. Compare the Adjunct of the Object in §35.

Complex Sentences.

38.—Form of Analysis.—These are to be analyzed in the first instance as if each subordinate clause were a single word or phrase. The subordinate clauses are then to be analyzed separately.

EXAMPLES CONTAINING NOUN CLAUSES.

39. 'That he committed the fault, could be judged from his looks.'

I. *Subject,* 'that he committed the fault', *noun clause (a).*
III. *Predicate,*   { *Verb of incompl. pred.* 'could'.
                         Complement of predicate, 'be judged'.
VI. *Adverbial adjunct of predicate,* 'from his looks', *prepl. phrase of means or cause.*

Analysis of (a).
I. *Subject,* 'he'.
III. *Predicate,* 'committed'.
IV. *Object,* 'fault'.
V. *Adjunct of object,* 'the'.

The conjunction 'that' does not enter into the construction of the dependent clause.

40. ' I told him that we should be there '.

I. *Subject*, ' I '.

III. *Predicate*, ' told '.

IV. *Object*, ' that we should be there ', '*noun clause, (a)*.

VI. *Adverbial adjunct of Predicate*, ' him ', = ' *to* him ', *phrase of direction.*

Analysis of (a).

I. *Subject*, ' we '.

III. *Predicate*, $\begin{cases} Vb. \ of \ incompl. \ pred., \text{ ' should be '.} \\ Complement, \text{ ' there ', } adv. \ of \ place. \end{cases}$

In these constructions the practice has been to term ' him ' the indirect object of the verb, but we may also regard it as an adverbial word indicating a circumstance connected with the act of telling. It is important to compare this example with the following.

41. ' I strongly warned him that disaster would follow such perversity '.

I. *Subject*, ' 1 '.

III. *Predicate*, ' warned '.

IV. *Object*, ' him '.

VI. *Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate :* 1. ' strongly ', *adv. of degree.* 2. ' that disaster would follow such perversity ', *noun clause (a), used as advl. expression of reference.*

Analysis of (a).

I. *Subject*, ' disaster '.

III. *Predicate*, ' would follow ',

IV. *Object*, ' perversity '.

V. *Adjunct of object*, ' such ', *adj.*

' That ' introduces the noun clause and connects it with the principal.

Here ' him ' is the *direct* object of ' warned '. We might say ' I *told* or *mentioned* the fact that we should be there ' ; but not ' I *warned* the fact that disaster would follow '. Hence in the one case the noun clause is the real object of the verb ; in the other case it is not the object, and must be considered as modifying the predicate.

' I dreamt *that I dwelt in marble halls* '. ' Dreamt ' may be regarded as transitive, = ' thought in a dream ' ; in which case the noun clause, ' that I dwelt in marble halls ', is the object. If ' dreamt ' be regarded as intransitive, the noun clause is used as an *adverbial* expression of *reference*.

42. 'It is singular that you should make that mistake.'

I. *Subject,* ' it '.

II. *Adjunct of Subject,* 'that you should make that mistake', *noun clause in apposition,* (*a*).

III. *Predicate,* { *Verb of incomplete predication,* ' is '. { *Complement of Pred.,* 'singular', *adj.*

Analysis of (*a*).

I. *Subject,* ' you '.

III. *Predicate,* ' should make '.

IV. *Object,* 'mistake '.

V. *Adjunct of Object,* 'that ', *demonstr. adj.*

The first ' that ' is merely the formal word introducing the noun clause.

The apposition is more impressively brought out by the stronger pronoun ' this '. ' We know *this, that in three campaigns we have done nothing* '. Compare also the following example.

43. 'Morality is deeply interested in this, that what is immoral shall not be made attractive.'

I. *Subject,* 'morality '.

III. *Predicate,* { 1. *Incompl. verb,* ' is '. { 2. *Complem.,* 'interested ', *adj.*

VI. *Advl. Adjuncts of Predicate :*

1. ' deeply ', *adv. of degree.*

2. ' in this ', *prepl. phr. of reference,* the reference being given in ' that what is immoral shall not be made attractive ', *noun clause* (*a*) *in apposition to* ' this '.

Analysis of (*a*).

I. *Subject,* 'what is immoral ', *noun clause* (*a*²).

III. *Predicate,* { 1. *Incompl. Verb,* ' shall not ', *negative.* { 2. *Complem.,* ' be made attractive ', itself an incomplete infinitive with adjective complement.

' That ' introduces the noun clause.

Analysis of (*a*²).

I. *Subject,* ' what '.

III. *Predicate,* { 1. *Incompl. verb,* ' is '. { 2. *Complem.* ' immoral ', *adj.*

44. ' Tell me how you are.'

I. *Subject,* ' you ' (understood).

III. *Predicate,* ' tell'.

IV. *Object,* ' how are you ', *noun clause (a).*

VI. *Adverbial Adjunct of Predicate,* 'me ', = '*to* me', *phrase of direction or benefit.*

Analysis of (a).

I. *Subject,* 'you '.

III. *Predicate,* { 1. *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'are'. { 2. *Complement of predicate,* 'how', *adv.*

45. ' I wish to know where you live.'

I. *Subject,* ' I '.

III. *Predicate,* ' wish '.

IV. *Object,* ' to know ', *infinitive.*

V. *Adjunct of Object,* ' where you live ', *noun clause (a), object to* ' to know '.

Analysis of (a).

I. *Subject,* ' you '.

III. *Predicate,* ' live '.

VI. *Adverbial adjunct of Predicate,* ' where ', *adv. of place.*

46. ' What seems most extraordinary in the battle of Sedgemoor is that the event should have been for a moment doubtful.'

I. *Subject,* ' what seems most extraordinary in the battle of Sedgemoor ', *noun clause (a 1).*

III. *Predicate:*

1. *Incompl. verb,* ' is '.

2. *Complem.,* ' that the event should have been for a moment doubtful ', *noun clause, (a 2).*

Analysis of (a 1).

I. *Subject,* ' what '.

III. *Predicate,* { 1. *Incompl. verb,* ' seems '. { 2. *Complem.,* ' extraordinary ', *adj.*

VI. (1). *Adverbial Adjunct of Predicate,* ' in the battle of Sedgemoor ', *prepl. phrase of place.*

(2.) *Advl. Adjunct of Complem. of Pred.,* ' most ', *adverb of degree.*

Analysis of (a 2).

I. *Subject,* ' event '.

II. *Adjunct of Subject,* ' the ', *adj.*

III. *Predicate,* { 1. *Incompl. verb,* ' should have been '. { 2. *Complem.,* ' doubtful ', *adj.*

VI. *Advl. Adjunct of Pred.,* ' for a moment ', *prepl. phr. of time.*

' That ' introduces the noun clause.

47. 'They brought home numerous evidences that the expedition had been successful.'

I. *Subject*, 'they', *pron.*
III. *Predicate*, 'brought'.
IV. *Object*, 'evidences'.
V. *Adjuncts of Object:*
   1. 'numerous', *adj.*
   2. 'that the expedition had been successful', *noun clause*, (*a*), object to 'evidences' (in consequence of the verb force contained in it; for 'evidences' = '*objects, &c., evidencing or proving*'. See § 16.).
VI. *Advl. Adjunct of Predicate*, 'home', = '*to* home', *phr. of place.*

Analysis of (*a*).

I. *Subject*, 'expedition'.
II. *Adjunct of Subject*, 'the', *adj.*
III. *Predicate*, { 1. *Incompl. verb*, 'had been'.
            { 2. *Complem.*, 'successful', *adj.*
'That' introduces the noun clause.

48. 'I felt certain that the expedition would be successful.'

I. *Subject*, 'I'.
III. *Predicate*, { 1. *Incompl. verb*, 'felt'.
           { 2. *Complem.*, 'certain', *adj.*
IV. *Object*, 'that the expedition would be successful', *noun clause* (*a*); the pred. 'felt certain' being the same in force as 'firmly believed', or some such regular transitive verb form. (See § 16.)
Or, the noun clause may be regarded as an *Advl. adjunct of Predicate*, explaining what it was in *reference* to that 'I felt certain'. (Compare § 41, end.).

EXAMPLES CONTAINING ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

49. 'The hill that you see in the distance commands a fine prospect.'

I. *Subject*, 'hill'.
II. *Adjuncts of Subject*, { 1. 'the', *adj.*, or *article.*
                  { 2. 'that you see in the distance',
                         adjective clause, (*a*).
III. *Predicate*, 'commands'.
IV. *Object*, 'prospect'.
V. *Adjuncts of Object*, { 1. 'a', *adj.* or *article.*
              { 2. 'fine', *adjective.*

Analysis of (a).

I. *Subject,* 'you'.
III. *Predicate,* 'see'.
IV. *Object,* 'that', *relative pronoun.*
V. *Adjunct of Object,* 'in the distance', *prepl. phrase ;* really adverbial, modifying a verb implied, as '*standing, rising, stretching away* in the distance'; and the adjunct is co-ordinating.

50. 'Who was it that told you.'

I. *Subject,* 'it'.
II. *Adjunct of subject,* 'that told you', *adjective clause (a).*
III. *Predicate,* $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{Verb of incompl. predication,} \text{ 'was'.}\\ \textit{Complement of predicate,} \text{ 'who'.}\end{array}\right.$

Analysis of (a).

I. *Subject,* 'that', *relative pronoun.*
III. *Predicate,* 'told'.
VI. *Adrl. Adjunct of Predicate,* 'you', = '*to* you', *prepl. phrase of direction or benefit.*

51. 'The labour we delight in physics pain.'

I. *Subject,* 'labour'.
II. *Adjuncts of Subject :* $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{1. 'the', } \textit{adj.}\\ \text{2. '(that) we delight in', } \textit{adj.}\\ \text{\quad clause (a).}\end{array}\right.$
III. *Predicate,* 'physics'.
IV. *Object,* 'pain'.

Analysis of (a).

I. *Subject,* 'we', *pron.*
III. *Predicate,* 'delight'.
VI. *Advl. adjunct of Predicate,* '(that) in' (= 'in which'), *prepl. phrase of reference or cause.*

52. 'Such kings as regard not the solemn promises they make are dangerous.'

I. *Subject,* 'kings'.
II. *Adjuncts of Subject :* $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{1. 'such', } \textit{adj.}\\ \text{2. 'as regard not the solemn pro-}\\ \text{\quad mises they make', } \textit{adj.}\\ \text{\quad clause (a).}\end{array}\right.$
III. *Predicate :* $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text{1. } \textit{Incompl. verb,} \text{ 'are'.}\\ \text{2. } \textit{Complem.,} \text{ 'dangerous', } \textit{adj.}\end{array}\right.$

Analysis of (a).

I. *Subject,* 'as', *relative pronoun* (adverbial equivalent to 'that' or 'who').

III. *Predicate*, ' regard not ', *negative.*
IV. *Object*, ' promises '.
V. *Adjuncts of Object* :
   1. ' the ', *adj.*
   2. ' solemn ', *adj.*
   3. ' (that) they make ', *adj. clause* (a^2).

<div align="center">Analysis of (a^2).</div>

I. *Subject*, ' they ', *pron.*
III. *Predicate*, ' make '.
[IV. *Object*, ' that ', *rel. pron.*, understood.]

53. ' We saw the place where the Jacobite standard was raised.'

Here the object, ' place ', is qualified by the adjective clause ' where the Jacobite standard was raised ', which is analyzed thus :—

I. *Subject*, ' standard '.
II. *Adjuncts of Subject*, { 1. ' the ', *adj.* or *article*.
                       2. ' Jacobite ', *adjective*.
III. *Predicate*, ' was raised '.
VI. *Adverbial Adjunct of Predicate*, ' where ' ; *relative adv. of place* (= ' in which ', or ' that - in ').

54. ' The judges of the common law, who held their situations during the pleasure of the King, were scandalously obsequious.'

I. *Subject*, ' judges '.
II. *Adjuncts of Subject* :
   1. ' the ', *adj.*
   2. ' of the common law ', *prepl. phr.*
   3. ' who held their situations during the pleasure of the King ', *adj. clause, co-ordinating*, (*a*).
This co-ordinating adj. cl. has the force of an adverbial adjunct of cause or reason : ' The judges were obsequious, *for* (*because, seeing that*, &c.,) they held their situations during the pleasure of the King '. (Cf. p. 34, bottom, § 18.)
III. *Predicate* : { 1. *Incompl. verb* ' were '.
            2. *Complem.*, ' obsequious ', *adj.*
VI. *Advl. Adjunct of* (*Compl. of*) *Pred.*, ' scandalously ', *adv. of manner and degree and effect or consequence.*

<div align="center">Analysis of (a).</div>

I. *Subject*, ' who ', *rel. pron.*
III. *Pred.*, ' held '.
IV. *Object*, ' situations '.

V. *Adjunct of Object,* 'their', *poss. adj.*
VI. *Advl. Adjunct of Predicate,* 'during the pleasure of the King', *prep. phr. of time and condition.*

EXAMPLES CONTAINING ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

55. 'When I look upon the tombs of the great, every emotion of envy dies in me.'

I. *Subject,* 'emotion'.
II. *Adjuncts of Subject,* $\begin{cases} 1. \text{ 'every', } adj. \\ 2. \text{ 'of envy', } adv. phr., prep. \text{ and } noun. \end{cases}$
III. *Predicate,* 'dies'.
VI. *Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate,* $\begin{cases} 1. \text{ 'in me', } prepl. adv. phr., place. \\ 2. \text{ 'when I look upon the tombs of the great', } adverbial clause (a). \end{cases}$

Analysis of (a).

I. *Subject,* 'I'.
III. *Predicate,* 'look upon'.
IV. *Object,* 'tombs'.
V. *Adjuncts of Object,* $\begin{cases} 1. \text{ 'the', } adj. \text{ or } art. \\ 2. \text{ 'of the great', } prep. adj. phr. \end{cases}$
VI. *Adverbial Adjunct of Predicate,* 'when', *adv. of time.*

The predicate might also be given as simply 'look' (intrans. verb). 'Upon' is then a prep., and 'upon the tombs of the great' is a prepl. phr. of place and direction modifying 'look'.

56. 'He is proud that he is noble.'

Principal clause, 'he is proud'.
Subordinate adverbial clause, '(that) he is noble'.
The expression 'that he is noble' signifies the reason, the 'why', of his being proud ('because' might have been used instead of 'that'), and is therefore an adverbial clause.

57. 'He ran so fast that I could not overtake him.'

Principal clause, 'he ran so fast'.
Subordinate adverbial clause (attached to the adverb 'so', which it modifies or defines), 'that I could not overtake him'.

I. *Subject,* 'he'.
III. *Predicate,* 'ran'.
VI. *Adverbial Adjunct of Predicate,* 'fast' (*adv. of manner*), modified by 'so' (*adv. of degree*), which is modified by 'that I could not overtake him', *advl. clause.*

Analysis of (*a*).

I. *Subject,* 'I'.

III. *Predicate,* { *Incompl. verb* 'could not', *negative.*
{ *Compl. of pred.,* '(to) overtake', *infinitive.*

IV. *Object,* 'him'.

VI. *Adverbial Adjunct of Predicate,* 'that'.

'That' here is not primarily a conjunction, but the equivalent of an adverb; 'he ran so fast, and *so,* or, *by that,* I could not overtake him'.

58. This example may be compared with the following :—'He spoke loud, that I might hear him.'

Principal clause, 'he spoke loud'.

Subordinate adverbial clause, 'that I might hear him'.

In this case, 'that' is still adverbial, qualifying the verb of the subordinate clause; it is equal to 'so as', and states the circumstance, manner, or means of my hearing him.

If we employ 'in order that' as the connective, the case is different; the clause 'that I might hear him' is then a noun clause qualifying 'order'. (Mason, art. **354.**) But 'in order that' may be taken as a phrasal conjunction.

59. 'The sea is as deep as the mountains are high.'

Principal clause, 'the sea is as deep'.

Subordinate adverbial clause, 'as the mountains are high'.

I. *Subject* (*with adjunct*), 'the sea'.

III. *Predicate,* { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'is'.
{ *Complement of predicate,* 'deep'.

VI. *Adverbial adjunct of complement of predicate,* 'as' (*adv. of degree*), modified by 'as the mountains are high', *advl. clause of degree* (*a*).

Analysis of (*a*).

I. *Subject,* 'the mountains'.

III. *Predicate,* { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'are'.
{ *Complement of predicate,* 'high'.

VI. *Advl. adjunct of compl.,* 'as', *relative adv. of degree.*

60. It is only *through their adverbial force* that some conjunctions enter into the construction of the dependent clause.

In adverbial clauses introduced by the subordinating conjunctions 'if', 'though', 'because', 'that', &c., the conjunction does not enter into the construction of the clause. It is the adverbial conjunctions, 'when', 'where', 'whenever', 'wher-

ever ', 'as ', &c., that are considered as qualifying the subordinate clause introduced by them.

61. ' We must not think the life of a man begins when he can feed himself.'

Principal clause, ' We must not think' (A).
Subordinate noun clause, '(that) the life of a man begins' (*a*).
Adverbial clause subordinate to (*a*), ' when he can feed himself' (*a²*).

Here we have subordination of the second degree, and the whole may be symbolically expressed (A + *a* + *a²*).

Compound Sentences.

62. The Co-ordinate Sentences are to be analyzed separately, and the link of connexion indicated. These separate sentences, when complex, are to be analyzed as such.

' The house fell, and great was the fall thereof '. [A] ' The house fell ; [B] great was the fall thereof '. ' And ' connects [A] and [B].

' He goes [A], (but) it is intended that I should remain till I grow stronger ' [B + *b* + *b²*].

Contracted Sentences.

63. In these the omitted parts must be expressed at full length, after which the analysis proceeds as above.

' Frogs and seals live on land and in water '. Here there are four sentences. ' Frogs live on land ' ; ' frogs live in water ' ; ' seals live on land ' ; ' seals live in water '.

' I am the first and (I am) the last.'

In the following example the contraction takes place in the subordinate part of a complex sentence : ' when a man is from necessity his own tailor, tent-maker, carpenter, cook, huntsman, and fisherman, it is not probable that he will be expert at any of his callings '. So in this : ' say first, for Heaven hides nothing from thy view, nor the deep tract of Hell '.

Again : ' In all times and in all places, man has sought to understand the language of nature '.

64. Let us present an analysis of the following compound sentence :—

'The theory of the Mahometan government rests upon the maintenance of a clear separation from the unbelievers ; and to propose to a Mussulman of any piety, that the Commander of the Faithful should obliterate the distinction between Mahometans and Christians would be proposing to obliterate the distinction between virtue and vice : the notion would seem to be not merely wrong and wicked, but a contradiction in terms.'

Analysis of sentence :—A. 'The theory— unbelievers '.

I. *Subject (with adjuncts)*, 'the theory of government '.

III. *Predicate*, 'rests upon '. (Compare 'look upon ' : § 55.)

IV. *Object (with adjuncts)*, 'the maintenance—unbelievers '.

B. ' To propose— virtue and vice '.

I. *Subject*, ' to propose '. *infinitive.*

II. *Adjuncts of Subject :*

1. 'that the Commander——Christians ', *noun clause (b).*

2. ' to a Mussulman of any piety ', *advl. phrase (prep. and noun) of end or direction.*

III. *Predicate*, { *Verb of incompl. pred.*, ' would be '.
                   { *Compl. of pred.*, ' proposing ', *infin.*

IV. *Object of verb*, ' to obliterate ', *infinitive.*

V. *Adjunct of Object :* ' the distinction between virtue and vice ', *object (with adjuncts) to infin.* ' to obliterate '.

Analysis of (b).

I. *Subject (with adjuncts)*, ' the Commander of the Faithful '.

III. *Predicate*, ' should obliterate '.

IV. *Object (with adjuncts)*, ' the distinction between Mahometans and Christians '.

The third division of the sentence is greatly contracted. The full expression is : ' the notion would seem to be not merely wrong [c] and (the notion would seem to be not merely) wicked [D], but (the motion would seem to be) a contradiction in terms ' [E]. Sometimes such an expression as ' wrong and wicked ' may be viewed as a compound predicate, the two words being intended to convey but one notion to the mind. ' And ' connects A and B, C and D ; ' but ' connects E with C and with D, being anticipated by ' not merely ' ; there is no connecting link expressed between B and C. ' That ' connects *b* and B.

Elliptical Sentences.

65. Ellipsis is the omission of some part essential to a complete construction for the sake of brevity and strength. What is left is regarded as ·sufficient to convey the intended meaning.

The Contracted Sentences above spoken of are one class of Elliptical Sentences ; the part common to two or more Co-ordinate Sentences being expressed only once. Another class, somewhat more difficult, are those involving the Comparative Adverbs, 'as', 'than', and 'the'.

66. 'He is as tall as I am.'

In full, 'he is as tall as I am *tall*'. *Principal clause,* 'he is as tall'; *adverbial adjunct of the complement of the predicate,* 'as' (modified by the adverbial clause) 'as I am tall'.

The predicate of the elliptical or dependent clause is 'tall', and this is compared, by means of the relative adverb 'as', with the degree of tallness expressed in the principal clause. It is analogous to the sentence already given,—'the sea is as deep as the mountains are high'.

67. 'He is taller than I am.'

In full, 'he is taller than I am *tall*'. *Principal clause,* 'he is taller'; *adverbial clause,* 'I am tall than', where 'than' (which is originally 'then') is an adverb of degree, qualifying 'tall'. 'He is taller, *then* (next, in an inferior degree) I am tall.'

68. 'He is more industrious than clever.'

In full : 'he is more industrious than *he is* clever'. Analyzed thus :—

I. *Subject,* 'he'.

III. *Predicate,* { *Verb of incomplete predication,* 'is'.
{ *Compl. of predicate,* 'industrious'.

VI. *Adverbial adjunct of the complement,* 'more' (*adv. of degree*), modified by 'than he is clever' (*advl. clause of degree*) (*a*) (analyzed, 'he is clever than '). Literally, this construction means, 'he is industrious *more—then* he is clever '. There would seem to be a tautology in the English idiom, for either word, 'more' or 'than', would have expressed the comparison.

69. 'He has not written so much as I have.'

In full, 'so much as I have written *much*'. The adverb 'as' is an adverb of degree qualifying 'much' understood. 'I have written much, he has not written much (to the same degree)', is the mode of rendering the construction. Or 'I have written much *so* (compared by a certain quantity), he has not written much *so* (compared by the same quantity)'.

70. 'He has written more letters than you.'

In full, 'he has written more letters than you *have written many letters*'; 'he has written many letters *more* ('many *more*', or '*more* many', = more, or *many-er*)—*then* you have written many letters'.

71. 'He does not write so well as you.'

'He does not write so well as you *write well.*' 'As' modifies the second 'well', in correspondence with 'so' modifying the first 'well'. 'He does not well *so* (in that degree) *as* (in which degree) well you write.'

72. 'I would as soon die as suffer that.'

'I would as soon die, as *I would soon* suffer that.' In other words, 'I would die as soon as soon I would suffer that'. The 'as—as' here is precisely similar to the 'so—as' in the preceding example (§ 71).

73. 'As', after 'such' and 'same', employed as equivalent to the restrictive relative, is a case of ellipsis.

'The house is not such *as* I want.' 'The house is not such a house as I want a house.' 'A house I want is *so*, the house is not *such*' (or so-*like*, or 'like to that'). The full correspondence was well given by the ancient 'such—such'.

74. 'I am not such a fool as to believe that.'

In full, 'I am not such a fool as *I should be a fool* to believe that'. 'I should be a fool to believe that (if I were to believe that).' 'I am not a fool *such* (or *so*, or 'like that', or 'to that degree') *as* (in which degree) a fool I should be to believe that.'

75. 'Our habits are costlier than Lucullus wore.'

'Than Lucullus wore *costly habits*', or 'than *the habits were costly that* Lucullus wore'. 'Our habits are costly *more—then* costly habits Lucullus wore.'

76. 'Moderation in the use of food is a better remedy than medicine for an oppressed state of the circulation.'

'Than medicine *is a good remedy.*'

77. To resolve a compound sentence into the simple or complex sentences composing it, often enables us *to detect a fault in its construction.*

'Because he had committed a crime, he was shut up in prison and let out again only yesterday.' As it stands, the sentence is resolvable into these two : ' because he had committed a crime, he was shut up in prison ', and ' because he had committed a crime, he was let out only yesterday '. It should be, ' because he had committed a crime, he was shut up in prison ; and *he was* let out again only yesterday ' ; or, ' and it was only yesterday that he was let out again '.

78. A Relative Pronoun, as subject, is frequently omitted in poetry, not often in prose.

In the sentence, ' there was a man showed me the way ', the analysis will determine exactly what is wrong. There is but one subject, ' man ', to two finite verbs, making up two distinct assertions. Now this is admissible only in a compound contracted sentence ; but the form of such a sentence would be ' a man was there *and* showed me the way '. Every assertion, and consequently every finite verb, must have a subject, and every subject must have a predicate or finite verb. The insertion of the relative would supply a subject to the second verb in the above sentence. Further instances : ' there is a garden goes along with the house ' ; ' who was it took the news to Hall Farm ?' ' haply I see a man will save my life '; ' now who be ye would cross Lochgyle ?'

CONCORD.

I. The general principles or processes regulating the grammatical union of words in sentences are three in number—**Concord, Government,** and **Order** or arrangement of words.

When two connected words are of the same Gender, Number, Person, or Tense, they are said to *agree* with one another, or to be **in Concord.** Speaking of a man we have to say *he*, of a woman *she*, of a plurality of persons, *they ;* these are agreements or concords.

In point of fact, these concords are already taught under Etymology. We have seen that ' he ' means a man, ' she ' a woman, &c.; that when a noun is in the plural, there is a

peculiar inflexion of the verb to correspond with it ('they *call*', not *calls*), and also a certain inflexion of the demonstrative adjectives ('*these*, not *this*, houses'). Hence the expressions, ' the trees grows ', ' those sort of things ', are errors of Etymology as well as of Syntax. What is left to Syntax is merely to explain *some difficult and doubtful cases*, where we are not quite sure what the person, number, gender, or tense of a word really is.

Concord of Subject and Verb.

2. A Verb must agree with its Subject in Number and in Person; and the Subject of the Verb is always in the Nominative Case.

The verb and the subject, being both spoken of the same thing, must agree with each other; if they did not, there would be a contradiction in terms. If 'John' is the name for one individual, and 'write' is the form that predicates the action, ' writing ', for a plurality of individuals, then 'John write' is a discord, or wrong combination.

This rule is seldom transgressed in short sentences except by persons altogether untaught. Such expressions as 'says I', ' he do ', ' we sees ', ' the shops is not open ', are mistakes of the grossest kind. But in longer sentences, where several names occur, *the verb is sometimes inadvertently referred to what is not the real subject.* The following are examples of the kind of structure refered to: ' the *origin* of the city and state of Rome *is* involved in great uncertainty'; ' the momentary *junction* of several tribes *produces* an army '. These are correct; but many instances of errors arising in similar constructions could be produced. For example: ' his *reputation* was great, and somewhat more durable than *that* of similar poets *have* generally been '. ' Railroads seem now, however, to be likely to supersede most other methods of conveyance, in so far, at least, as the *transit* of goods and passengers *are* concerned.' ' The patronage which the British Colonies *affords* to the home government is immense.' ' The lighting and cleaning of the streets *is* not nearly so good as in the large towns of England.' ' The *opinion* of several eminent lawyers *were* in his favour.'

3. Collective Nouns, though Singular in form, take a Plural Verb if the Predicate applies to the objects taken individually; as ' the peasantry *go* barefooted, and the middle sort *make* use of wooden shoes '; ' one half of men *do* not know how the other half *live* '.

When what is affirmed of the noun is an action that can be true of the whole mass in its collective unity, the verb is then singular; as 'the fleet *is* under orders to set sail'. When we say 'the British nation *has* not sprung up in a generation', we speak of the nation as a collective organized whole. So 'the House (of Lords, or of Commons) *resolves*'; 'the Assembly *has* decreed'; 'the Senate *is* of opinion'; 'the army *was* disorganized'; 'the mob *was* dispersed'; 'the invading force (army and fleet) *was* in progress towards Attica'; 'one fourth of the men at the diggings *is* composed of convicts'.

Contrast these with the cases where the predicate applies to the individuals of the collection acting separately. 'The people of the rude tribes of America *are* remarkable for their artifice and duplicity.' Here what is affirmed applies to the individual Americans acting singly and apart. 'The generality of his hearers *were* favourable to his doctrines'; 'the public *are* often deceived by false appearances and extravagant pretensions'— meaning the members of the community taken individually; 'a considerable number *were* induced to quit the body'. The following sentence sounds awkward, but it is strictly correct: 'The Megarean sect *was* founded by Euclid, not the mathematician, and *were* the happy inventors of logical syllogism, or the art of quibbling' (Tytler). In the first part, the sect is spoken of in its collective capacity; and, in the second, as individuals. 'There *is* a certain class of men who never *look*', &c., may be justified on the same ground. So 'the *people* is one, and *they have* all one language'. The pronoun before the second verb is a great improvement. 'Their cattle *was* their chief property; and *these* were nightly exposed to the southern Borderers' (Scott).

There are a few cases where usage is not invariable. In speaking of small bodies, such as those indicated by a Board, a Commission, a Council, a Court, the plural verb is frequently used: 'the Board *are* of opinion'; 'the Committee *consider*'; 'the Court *are* disposed'. This may be explained on the ground that the members in a body of, say two, three, or six, stand forward more prominently in their individual capacity, whereas in an assembly of three hundred, the individual is entirely merged in the collective vote.

The following examples are incorrect :—'The meeting *were* large' (would mean that it was composed of large men); 'Stephen's party *were* entirely broken up'; 'mankind *was* not united by the bonds of civil society'; 'the Church *have* no power to inflict corporal punishments'; 'in this business the House of Commons *have* no weight'; 'a detachment of two hundred men *were* immediately sent'; 'one man of genius

accomplishes what a crowd of predecessors *has* essayed in vain ';
' not one fourth of provincial tradesmen or farmers ever *take*
stock ; nor, in fact, *does* one half of them ever *keep* account-
books deserving of the name '.   The following is at least
inconsistent : ' when a nation *forms* a government, it is not
wisdom, but power, which *they* place (*it* places) in the hands of
the Government ', &c.   A judge charging a jury, vacillated in
the construction of the word ' Court ', thus : ' It was satisfactory
to the Court to find that it would be incumbent on *them*, &c.
. . .   The Court, therefore, in the discharge of *their* duty.
. . .   The Court *believe*. . . .   The Court *is* not entirely
satisfied with the finding of the jury. . . .   The Court, in
the sentence which *it is* about to pronounce by my mouth ', &c.

When *the form* of a noun is *plural*, but *the meaning singular*,
a singular verb is generally preferred : ' this news *is* not true ';
' no pains *is* taken ' ; ' the wages *of* sin is death '.*   ' The
Pleasures of Memory was published in 1792, and became at
once popular.'   The pronoun in the following should be
singular : ' His (Thomson's) *Seasons* will be published in about
a week's time, and a most noble work *they* will be '.   Johnson
says ' my Lives *are* reprinting ', which it might be harsh to
alter, owing to the great prominence of the notion of plurality.
In the next example the singular idea of distance is prominent :
' By my valour, then, Sir Lucius, *forty yards is* a good distance.
Odds levels and aims !   I say *it* is a good distance.'   (*Rivals*).
' Nine-tenths of the miseries and vices of mankind *proceed* from
idleness ' (Carlyle) ;   the verb is plural, because predicating
about a *number*.   But ' nine-tenths of the misery and vice of
mankind *proceeds* from idleness ' ;   the verb being singular,
because the subject expresses, not plurality of number, but an
amount or *quantity*.

But those nouns that have plural forms on account of a
plurality of the subject, such as ' bellows ', ' scissors ', ' snuffers ',
' lungs ', ' ashes ', &c., are more usually found with plural verbs.

Although we should say, ' there *are* two, there *are* three ',
yet usage permits in familiar language the singular contracted
form, ' there's two or three '.—(Craik, *English of Shakespeare*).

4. If the subject consists of two or more nouns (or equivalents of nouns) united by the conjunction 'and', the Verb must be put in the plural : ' John and James *are* in the field '; ' Mars and Jupiter *are* visible '.

* Dr. Angus would prefer the plural, as least likely to call attention to
the mere grammar of the sentence : ' the means used *were* not commend-
able ' ; ' great pains *were* taken '.

Exceptions and Peculiarities.

(1). *If the nouns are names for the same subject,* the plurality is apparent only, and not real. The verb is then singular.

> 'A laggard in love and a dastard in war
> *Was* to wed the fair Ellen of brave Lochinvar.'

> 'This murderous chief, this ruthless man,
> This head of a rebellious clan,
> *Hath* led thee safe.'

'The spectator and historian of his exploits *has* observed.' 'When the Duke died, his son and namesake and successor *was* an infant.' With inversion: 'so says the wisest poet, and perhaps the wisest statesman and politician of antiquity'. (Chatham).

(2). *In cases where the two names are almost synonymous,* or *denote objects closely connected together,* or *express different views of the same fact,* or are used chiefly for the sake of emphasis, there is still a kind of unity in the subject, and the verb is often made singular.

'Wherein *doth* sit the dread and fear of kings'; 'the head and front of my offending *hath* this extent'; 'the hardship and exposure of a savage life speedily *destroys* those who are not of a robust constitution'; 'why *is* dust and ashes proud'? 'What *is* the use and object of building pinnacles'? (Helps). 'The peace and good order of society *was* not promoted by the feudal system' (Hallam). 'The very scheme and plan of his life differed from *that* of other men.' (*Ecce Homo*). 'The condition and growth of Attic comedy before this period *seems* to have been unknown even to Aristotle' (Grote). 'The general defence of the country and the maintenance of order among the inhabitants *was* entrusted to Saganos, who was invested with the revenue necessary for *the purpose*' (Finlay). 'The language and history of the Lithuanians *is* closely connected with *that* of the Greeks' (Freeman). 'To recover Silesia, to humble the dynasty of Hohenzollern to the dust, *was* the great object of Maria Theresa's life' (Macaulay). The first object involved the second; hence 'was', not 'were'. With this compare the following: 'to exalt the Lancastrian party, to depress the adherents of the house of York, *were* still the objects of his pursuit' (Hume). Looked at broadly, the two objects were substantially the same, and 'was' might have been used; at the same time 'were' directs attention forcibly

to each of the *two sides of the same fact*. In the next example, the subject is given twice; first, more generally, and then with some detail and explanation : ' that the fair prospects which had begun to open before the king were suddenly overcast, that his life was darkened by adversity, and at length shortened by violence, *is* to be attributed to his own faithlessness and contempt of law' (Macaulay).

In many such cases it is not easy to draw the line and decide when the subject is singular and when plural. But it is always undesirable to vacillate between the two. Thus : ' neither on the one side nor on the other *was* there the strength and unity of action which *result* from single and undivided aims' (Trench) ; ' with a deep insight into life, and a keen and comprehensive sympathy with its sorrows and enjoyments, there *is* combined [in the lyrics] that impetuosity of feeling, that pomp of thought and imagery which *belong* peculiarly to Schiller' (Carlyle).

' Fair and softly *goes* far'; 'poor and content *is* rich enough'.

(3). A singular verb may sometimes be justified on the ground of *an ellipsis*.

' The whole book, and every component part of it, is on a large scale' (Macaulay). With the most common cases of ellipsis, there is also inversion of subject and verb. ' There *was* a hen and (*there were*) chickens in the court' ; ' there *was* racing and (*there was*) chasing on Cannobie Lea' ; upon this there *was* a fearful cry from heaven, and great claps of thunder' (W. Irving) ; ' such *was* the intelligence, the gravity, and the self-command of Cromwell's warriors' (Macaulay) ; ' where *is* Lysander and sweet Hermia' ? (Shak.).

When *the same noun is coupled with two adjectives, so as to mean different things*, there is a plurality of sense, and the plural is required : ' in the latter also religious and grammatical learning *go* hand in hand'; ' the logical and the historical analysis of a language generally in some degree *coincide*'.

When *a verb separates its subjects* it agrees with the first, and is understood of the rest : ' the earth *is* the Lord's, and the fullness thereof'. See also the cases of ' as well as', and ' every', at end of § 4.

The last examples under (2) are very elliptical.

(4). Sometimes a *compound subject* is named by *a union of the names of its chief parts* ; and then the verb is singular.

Another exception to the general rule is exemplified in the following constructions : ' the wheel and axle *was* out of repair';

'a block and tackle *was* made use of'; 'bread and butter *is* my usual breakfast'. In these instances, the two things named make but one subject by their combination, called a compound subject. We may say, 'a needle and a thread *were* given to her, but she could not thread the needle'; and 'a needle and thread *was* given to her, but she could not sew the button on': the reason of the difference being apparent. 'Hanging and beheading *is* the punishment of treason', means that the criminal is both hanged and beheaded; 'hanging and beheading *are*', would mean that there are two separate punishments, and that sometimes one is made use of and sometimes the other. 'Sand and salt and a mass of iron *is* easier to bear than a man without understanding', is allowable on the supposition that we mean a combination of those several ingredients. So: 'all the furniture, the stock of shops, the machinery which could be found in the realm, *was* of less value than the property which some single parishes now contain'. (Macaulay). 'To injure, to insult, and to save himself from the consequences of injury and insult by lying and equivocating, *was* the habit of his life' (Macaulay): 'was' predicates regarding a course of action indicated by the enumeration of three several steps. Often in similar cases, there is introduced a pronoun, or some other subject, gathering up a number of points into one whole, which is then predicated of by a singular verb: 'to be the leader of the human race in the career of improvement, to found on the ruins of ancient intellectual dynasties a more prosperous and a more enduring empire, to be revered by the latest generations as the most illustrious among the benefactors of mankind, *all this was* within Bacon's reach' (Macaulay).*

The 'and' is sometimes omitted, but the rule remains the same if there be a plurality of idea in the subject: 'honour, justice, religion itself *were* involved'.

'*With*' for '*and*'.

—Instead of 'and', the preposition 'with' is sometimes used to connect the parts of an aggregate subject.

It is then a disputed point whether the verb should be singular or plural. Thus: 'the captain *with* his men *were*

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* We hear sometimes 'two and two *are* four'; 'three times four *are* twelve'; but the 'are' is scarcely defensible in either case. It would be correct to say 'two pounds and five pounds are (or make) seven pounds'; but with numbers in the abstract, what we mean is that the numerical combination of 'two and two' is the same as four. So 'twice one *are* two' must be wrong, because there is no plurality in the strict sense; and 'three times four' should be regarded as a combination or unity made up in a particular way.

taken prisoners '. The sense requires the plural, but grammati-
cally the subject is singular. 'The king, *with* the lords and
commons, *constitute* (or *constitutes*) our government'; 'the
purse, *with* its contents, *was* found on the person of the thief'.

The true solution of the difficulty is to employ 'and ' if the
sense is plural. The phrase 'with his men ' is an adjunct of
' captain ', being as much as to say ' accompanied with his men',
and should be used only when the attention is concentrated upon
him ; in which case the verb is regularly singular. If the men
are also to be formally predicated about, we should say 'the
captain *and* his men *were*'. So : 'the king, the lords, and the
commons *constitute* our government '.

'As well as' for 'and'.

—Nouns coupled by 'as
well as ' take the singular or the plural according to the
context.

If the predicate is meant to be *affirmed of both*, the plural is
employed, the phrase being then a synonyme for 'and ' :
'Pompey *as well as* Cæsar *were* great men '.

But if the ' as well as ' merely *quotes an illustrative comparison*,
the predication must then be understood as confined to the first
noun : 'Africa *as well as* Gaul *was* gradually fashioned by
imitation of the capital '; that is, by ellipsis, ' as well as Gaul
had been fashioned by imitation of the capital ', 'after the manner
of Gaul '. 'His curiosity, *as well as* his anxiety, *was* highly
excited ': we are supposed to know that his anxiety was more
or less excited, and now, when his curiosity alone is spoken of,
his anxiety is referred to for illustration. ' The opulence of the
monks, *as well as* the number of them, in the time of Henry
II., *was* enormous.'

The last case is the original and strictly proper application
of ' as well as '.

'Every' with connected subjects.

—The strong indi-
vidualizing force of ' every ' affects the number of the
predicate verb.

It has been doubted whether we could say ' *every* officer and
soldier *claim* a superiority in regard to other individuals ' ; or
even ' *every* officer and *every* soldier *claim* '. Plurality is
certainly implied, but there is a disagreeable effect produced by
joining ' every ' with a plural verb, and we might take shelter
under the elliptical usage, and say ' *every* officer (claims) and
every soldier *claims* '. The singular verb is powerfully favoured
by the decisively singular meaning of ' every '. On the same
ground, we must uphold the expression, ' *every* clergyman and

every physician *is* a gentleman'.   So we may defend the following : ' it has been observed by writers on physiognomy, that *every* emotion and *every* operation of the mind *has* a corresponding expression of the countenance'; '*every* limb and feature *appears* with *its* appropriate grace'.

5. Two or more Singular Nouns, connected by 'or' or 'nor', implying that they are separately taken, must have a Singular Verb:

'John, James, *or* Andrew *intends* to accompany you'; '*neither* this *nor* that *is* the thing wanted'.

Such sentences are always contracted co-ordinate sentences, and their construction is singular.   So in the example, ' my poverty, and not my will, *consents*', there is a contraction : ' my poverty consents, but my will does not consent'.   The omission of the connective makes no difference if the meaning is the same : ' a word, an epithet, *paints* a whole scene'.

Sometimes ' or ' is used when the real meaning would require ' and '.   ' To win *or* to lose (at cards) is unpleasant.'   Here there is a partial alternation of meaning from the circumstance that we cannot both win and lose at the same time ; still the sense is that both the one and the other are unpleasant.   If we were speaking of one game, where we must either win or lose, the ' or ' is suitable ; but speaking generally it would be better to say ' winning and losing *are* both unpleasant'.   So : ' life or death, felicity or lasting sorrow, *are* in the power of marriage' (Jer. Taylor) ; ' disobedience, desertion, mutiny, *or* theft *were* visited with death'; ' death, emigration, *or* personal slavery, *were* the only alternatives' (Freeman).   In an instance above quoted (hanging and beheading, &c.) we might have a third form : ' hanging *or* beheading *is* the punishment of treason', to show still more decisively that the judge must sentence a man to one, and not to both.

' Nor heaven nor earth *have* been at peace to-night' (Shak.). Dr. Craik remarks on this passage, that where, as here, the two singular substantives are looked at together by the mind, it is more natural to regard them as a plurality, and to use the plural verb, notwithstanding the disjunctive conjunction.   Compare : ' neither the king nor either of his two oldest sons *are* permitted to leave the island' (Swift) ; ' neither peace nor war, nor summer nor winter, *were* a season of repose' (Gibbon) ; 'neither Kent nor Sussex *were* among the greatest of the kingdoms which our forefathers founded in Britain' (Freeman); ' neither Mr. Adderley nor Mr. Roebuck *are* by nature inaccessible to considerations of this sort' (M. Arnold).   Notwithstanding such

examples, the singular verb has most reason on its side; the occasional use of the plural seems to testify to a considerable tendency to use this form after two or more subjects, even though the conjunction connecting these may indicate that they are to be predicated about in separation.

When *one* of two subjects separated by ' or ' or ' nor ' is *in the plural*, the verb should be plural : ' he or his servants *were* to blame '. It is proper in such cases to place the plural nominative next the verb.

6. When the Subject is a Relative Pronoun, the Antecedent determines the number of the verb : ' all ye that *pass* by '.

The following is a common error :—' That is one of the most valuable books that *has* appeared in any language '.   The antecedent to ' that ' is ' books ', not ' one '.   So : ' this is the epoch of one of the most singular discoveries that *has* been made among men ' (Hume) ; ' I resemble one of those animals that *has* been forced from its forest to gratify human curiosity ' (Goldsmith).

<div align="center">

' O Thou my voice inspire
Who *touched* Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire.'
</div>

But for the exigencies of the verse, Pope would have written ' touched*st* '.   The dropping of the inconvenient inflexional ending is not uncommon in poetry.   Pope has several more examples.

The phrase ' as follows ', applied to a plural antecedent, is now a settled usage.   If ' as ' were a true relative pronoun, there would be a breach of concord ; but we must consider the expression as now substantially adverbial, like ' as regards ', or ' so far as concerns '.   Perhaps the construction suitable to the most common case, the third person singular, has been extended to all cases.   Or ' as ' may be regarded as equivalent to ' in the manner that '.   It is not uncommon for speakers and writers to seek the appearance of grammatical correctness by using ' as *follow* '.

7. When two or more Pronouns of different persons, are connected by Alternative Conjunctions, there is much difficulty in deciding the form of the predicate verb.

Dr. Latham lays down that,

(1) where the Pronouns are singular and are preceded by ' either ' or ' neither ', the verb is in the third person : ' either he or I *is* in the wrong ' ; ' neither he nor I *is* in the wrong '.

And (2) when the Pronouns are not preceded by 'either' or 'neither', the verb agrees with the first: 'I or he *am* in the wrong'; 'he or I *is* in the wrong'; 'he or you *is* in the wrong'.

It is open to grave doubt whether the verb depends so entirely upon the 'either' and the 'neither'. Among other suggestions, the most important is that the verb should agree with the nearest of the subjects. All difficulty is obviated when the predicate verb is uninflected: 'can, will, sent, grew, planted, must', &c.

Further examples: 'neither you nor any one else *can* save her'; 'either the Prior or thou *has* made some singular altera-tions' (Scott); 'those are far more able to give your son help than either you or I *are*' (Scott); 'nothing which Mr. Pattison or I *have* said disprove, &c.' (M. Arnold); 'I hope neither my fellow nor I *am thieves*' (Massinger).

8. When the completion of the Predicate is a Noun, it may not be always apparent what is the real subject, seeing that the order is not decisive.

Hence the expression 'his pavilion *were* dark waters and thick clouds of the sky', may be justified on the ground that the sentence is inverted, 'pavilion' being the completion of the predicate, and not the subject.

Concord of Adjective and of Pronoun with Noun.

9. Pronominal Adjectives in English being alone inflected, questions of concord are confined to them.

The rules for the Concord of the **Demonstratives** 'this' and 'that' are the same as for the Concord of the Subject and the Verb: '*these* means *are—this* means *is*—not enough'.

When we decide that a noun should have a plural verb, we must apply the same rule to the demonstrative adjectives (and pronouns) agreeing with it. The word 'means' furnishes the chief doubtful instance; and we may either adopt the suggestion of making it uniformly plural, on account of the form, or look to the sense, and consider it plural when we have a plurality of agencies involved.

Such expressions as '*this* forty years', 'this many summers', are defended on the ground that a period of time may be treated as a unity Or 'this' may be really plural, a surviving instance of one of the old forms of 'these'.

10. The Distributive Adjectives, 'each', 'every', &c., are joined to a **Singular Noun,** and consequently the **Verb is singular :** 'every *tree is* known by its fruits '.

The following are examples of a not uncommon error : '*neither* of the sisters *were* very much deceived ' (Thackeray's *Vanity Fair*). '*Neither* of my brothers *do* anything to make this place amusing ' (*Virginians*).

They also take a **Singular Pronoun** when applied to *one Gender :* 'England expects *every man* to do *his* duty ' ; ' it seems natural that *every mother* should suckle *her* own child '.

But *when both Genders are implied,* it is allowable to use **the Plural :** ' let *each* esteem other better than *themselves* '.

Grammarians frequently call this construction an error : not reflecting that it is equally an error to apply ' his ' to feminine subjects. The best writers furnish examples of the use of the plural as a mode of getting out of the difficulty. '*Every person's* happiness depends in part upon the respect *they* meet in the world ' (Paley). '*Every one* must judge of *their* own feelings ' (Byron). ' If the part deserve any comment, *every* considering *Christian* will make it to *themselves* as *they* go ' (Defoe). '*Everybody* began to have *their* vexation.' '*Everybody* around her *was* gay, *was* busy, prosperous, and important : *each* had *their* objects of interest, *their* part, *their* dress, *their* favourite scene, *their* friends and confederates.' ' Had the doctor been co itented to take my dining tables, as *anybody* in *their* senses would have done ' (Miss Austen).

Sometimes strict grammar is preserved thus : '*Everybody* called for *his* or *her* favourite remedy, which nobody brought '. But this construction is felt to be too cumbrous to be kept up, as we see in the following example :—'The institution of property, reduced to its essential elements, consists in the recognition, *in each person*, of a right to the exclusive disposal of what *he* or *she* has produced by *their* own exertions ', &c. (J. S. Mill). ' The heart is a secret, even to *him* (or *her*) who has it in *his* own breast ' (Thackeray). A very ingenious device is seen in the following example : ' either a horse or a mare has lost *its* shoe '.

No doubt there are more instances of the employment of ' his ', but it must by no means be maintained that this form is exclusively right.

The following examples further illustrate the preference of the plural when both genders are involved : ' if an ox gore *a man* or *a woman* so that *they* die '. ' Not on outward charms should *man* or *woman* build *their* pretensions to please' (Opie). ' If I value my friend's *wife* or *son*, on account of *their* connexion with him ' (Angus). ' When *either party* fix *their* attachment upon the substantial comforts of a rental, or a jointure, *they* cannot be disappointed in the acquisition ' (Scott). ' My lord says that *nobody wears their* own hair ' (Thackeray). ' If *the fool*, or *the pig*, *are* of a different opinion, it is because *they* only know *their* own side of the question ' (J. S. Mill).

Concord of Tenses.

II. There is also a certain congruity of Tenses to be observed.

Contemporaneous actions should be expressed in the same tense.

In the narration of past events, the writer for the most part uses the past tense ; but, in order to recount vividly a rapid series of exciting incidents, he may for the occasion pass to the present tense,—called, in this application, the *historic* present. He is not permitted, however, to flit between the two. The following is a harsh incongruity : ' Fierce as he *moved*, his silver shafts *resound* '.

The Subordinate Tenses and the Principal Tense must not conflict.

' He *affirmed* that he *will* (for ' would ') go to-morrow ' ; ' he *hid* himself lest he *shall* (for ' should ') be impressed '. ' It *were* well for the insurgents, and fortunate for the king, if the blood that was now shed *had been* thought a sufficient expiation for the offence ' ; ' it *had been* well ' is the tense suiting ' *had been* thought '. ' If you *please* to employ your thoughts on that subject, you *would* conceive the miserable condition many of us are in ' ; this should be either ' if you *please*, you will ', or, ' if you *pleased* (it pleased you), you *would* '.

The use of the present indefinitive tense to express a proposition true for all time, is an apparent exception. We say ' Galileo *maintained* that the earth *moves*' (not ' moved '); the fact of the motion of the earth being true at all times and not being restricted to the time implied in 'maintained'. ' He denied that gold *was* (for ' is ') the most precious metal.'

> ' All night long the northern streamers
> *Shot* across the trembling sky :
> Fearful lights, that never *beacon*,
> Save when kings or heroes *die*.'

GOVERNMENT.

I. Government means the power that a word has to regulate the Case of a Noun or a Pronoun; as when a Pronoun coming after a Preposition takes the objective form: 'after *me*' (not 'after *I*'), 'to *him*' (not 'to *he*').

There being only one case inflexion in English nouns, and that occurring only in a limited number, the rules of government apply principally to pronouns.

2. The Possessive of Nouns (and of Pronouns) signifies personal possession or agency.

Preceding a Noun, a possessive noun (or pronoun, or pronominal adjective) expresses that the object belongs to or is somehow connected with the person whose name or designation is given in the possessive word.

'*John's* house' is 'the house *possessed by John*; owned, occupied, built, &c., by John'. '*John's* gospel' is 'the gospel *proclaimed* or *written* by John, or *named* after him'. '*Poor's* rates' are 'rates *levied for the support of the poor*'. The meaning of possession or belonging is often stretched to include very remote connexions.

Preceding an Infinitive Phrase, a possessive word indicates the subject of the action of the verb.

'I am surprised at *John's* (or *his, your*, &c.) *refusing* to go.' Very frequently the participle is found in place of the infinitive, in which case the objective is used in place of the possessive: 'I am surprised at *John* (or *him, you*, &c.) *refusing* to go'. The latter construction is not so common with pronouns as with nouns, especially with such nouns as do not readily take the possessive form. '*They* prevented *him* going forward': better 'they prevented *his* going forward', or 'they prevented *him from* going forward'. 'He was dismissed without any *reason being assigned*': this shows the influence of Latin construction. 'The boy died through his *clothes being burned*'. 'We hear little of any *connexion being kept up* between the two nations'. 'The men rowed vigorously for fear of *the tide turning* against us before we reached our destination':

'for fear of the *tide's turning*' would be felt awkward and unusual; say 'for fear *the tide should turn*', '*lest the tide should turn*', &c. '*Tacitus asserting the fact and remaining a heathen* is not so strong an argument as *Tacitus asserting the fact* and *becoming a Christian* in consequence of it' (Dr. Chalmers): substitute noun clauses thus—'*That Tacitus should assert the fact* and *remain a heathen,* is not so strong an argument as *that Tacitus should assert the fact* and *become a Christian* in consequence of it'; or say—'*If Tacitus asserted the fact* and *remained a heathen, this* is not so strong an argument as *if Tacitus had asserted the fact* and *become a Christian,* &c.'. The possessive seems to be entirely excluded when there is *inversion:* '*Suppose the very common case of there being no will*' (J. S. Mill) : apart from the question of construction this is perhaps more elegant than any regular substitute that could be proposed : '*the very common case where there is no will*'; 'suppose a very common case; suppose there is no will'; 'the very common case of *the absence of a will*'; &c. But most examples of the construction without the possessive form are obviously due to mere slovenliness. With a very little trouble, there could nearly always be found some satisfactory variety of correct expression.

3. Transitive Verbs (with their Participles and Gerunds) and Prepositions govern the Objective Case.

This rule is not often violated when the objective immediately follows the verb or preposition. It is when the object is at a distance from the governing word that a nominative is liable to be used. '*He* that promises too much, do not trust', for '*him* that', &c. ; many cases of this nature seem to result from an unexpected change in the construction before the verb is reached. There is a mixture of two forms : '*he* that promises too much *is not to be trusted*', and '*do not trust him* that promises too much'. 'My father allowed my brother and *I* to accompany him'; 'between you and *I*'; 'let you and *I* advance'.

On the supposition that the interrogative 'who' has 'whom' for its objective, the following are errors :—'*who* do you take me to be?' '*who* should I meet the other day?' '*who* is it by?' '*who* did you give it to?' '*who* to?' '*who* for?' But considering that these expressions *occur with the best writers and speakers,* that they *are more energetic* than the other form, and that they *lead to no ambiguity,* it may be doubted whether grammarians have not exceeded their province in condemning them. The following are a few examples to show the usage of some of our greatest writers :—'*Who* servest thou under?'

(Shak.) ' *Who* should I meet the other day but my old friend?'
(Steele). 'My son is going to be married to I don't know *who*'.
(Goldsmith). ' *Who* have we here?' (Goldsmith, &c.).

Even the *relative* ' whom ' is sometimes shortened to ' who '.
' The shepherd . . . *who* you saw sitting by me on the
turf ' (Shak.). ' The remaining place was engaged by a gentle-
man *who* they were to take up on the road ' (Thackeray).
Macaulay (Essay on Croker's Boswell's *Life of Johnson*)
denounces the following as a solecism : ' Markland, *who*, with
Jortin and Thirlby, Johnson calls three contemporaries of great
eminence '.

4. The Verb ' be ' has the same case after it as before it : ' *it* is *I*'; ' *ye* are *they*'.

This follows from the principle adopted from the classical
languages that when the complement of the predicate is a noun,
it is of the same case as the subject.

Most grammarians have laid down this rule. Macaulay (as
just cited, § 3) censures the following as a solecism : ' It was
him that Horace Walpole called a man who never made a bad
figure but as an author '. Thackeray (*Philip*, I. 16) similarly
adverts to the same deviation from the rule : ' " Is that *him* ? "
said the lady *in questionable grammar* '. But notwithstanding
this, we certainly hear in the actual speech of all classes of
society such expressions as ' it was *me* ', ' it was *him* ', ' it was
her ', more frequently than the prescribed form. ' This shy
creature, my brother says is *me* ' ; ' were it *me*, I'd show him
the difference ' (*Clarissa Harlowe*). ' It is not *me** you are in
love with ' (Addison). ' If there is one character more base
than another, it is *him* who ' &c. (*Sydney Smith*). ' If I were
him ' ; ' if it had been *her* ' ; &c. The authority of good writers
is strong on the side of the objective forms. There is also the
analogy of the French language ; for while ' *I* am here ' is ' *je*
suis ici ', the answer to ' who is there?' is ' *moi* ' (me) ; and
' c'est *moi* ' (it is me), is the legitimate phrase, never ' c'est *je* '
(it is *I*.)†

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* It may be confidently affirmed that with good speakers, in the case
of negation, ' *not me* ' is the usual practice.

† ' It is remarked by Dean Alford that ' it is *I* ' is suitable to an occasion
of dignity ; as ' He said unto them, ' It is *I* ; be not afraid '. ' ' Who does
not feel that here there is a majesty and prominence given by the
nominative person ; which makes the assurance what it was to the
disciples? But from this very prominence it is that we shrink in ordinary
talk. We shelter ourselves in the accusative case " me," which, though
ungrammatical, yet is acquiesced in, as better suiting the feeling of the
mind. We all remember the story of George III. reading Paley's fable
about a pigeon, and exclaiming " *Why, that's me !*" The king was just

5. In certain other cases the Objective often occurs where the Nominative is expected.

Similar to the foregoing is the case with regard to the use of **me, him,** &c., after the conjunctions 'than', 'as', &c., in whose favour there is the authority of an extensive if not predominating usage. 'He is taller than *me.*' 'No mightier than thyself or *me*', (*Shaks.*).* 'She was neither better bred nor wiser than you or *me*' (Thackeray).

> 'Satan, than *whom*
> None higher sat.'

Perhaps 'whom' is the uniform usage ; 'than *who*' seldom or never occurring. Of course, in all these cases, when the ellipsis is filled in, the nominative necessarily replaces the objective form : 'no mightier than thyself or *I am mighty*'.

The construction 'nobody said so *but him*', is defended by some grammarians on the ground that 'but' is a preposition as well as a conjunction. Still 'but *he*' is of frequent occurrence : 'no man hath ascended up to heaven but *he* that came down from heaven' ; 'there is none justified but *he* that is in measure sanctified'. 'Every one can master a grief but *he* that hath it' (Shak.) ; 'within that circle none durst walk but *he*' (Dryden). Compare :

> 'I do entreat you, not a man depart,
> *Save I* alone, till Antony hath spoke' (Shak., *Jul. Cæs.*).

ORDER OF WORDS.

I. The most general principles of the arrangement of words are, that what is to be thought of first should be metioned first, and that things to be thought of together should be placed in close connexion.

as right in the expression of the interpretation, as he was in the interpretation itself. He could not have said, "Why, that's *I*".—*Good Words*, March, 1863.

* On this Dr. Craik remarks ; 'Of course, in strict grammar, it should be *than I.* But the personal pronouns must be held to be, in some measure, emancipated from the dominion or tyranny of syntax. Who would rectify even Shelley's bold

> "lest there be
> No solace left for *thou* and *me*"?

The grammatical law has so slight a hold that a mere point of euphony is deemed sufficient to justify the neglect of it'.— *English of Shakespeare.* The effect of euphony appears to be well illustrated also in Shak., *Macb.*, III. iv. : ''Tis better *thee* without than *he* within'.

In inflected languages, the connexion of one word with another is indicated by means of inflexions. The English, on this point, trusts chiefly to position; and hence the order of words in a sentence is more fixed in English than in the classical languages.

Subject and Verb.

2. The Subject precedes the Verb: 'the earth moves', 'the stars twinkle'.

Exceptions.

1. When a question is asked, without an interrogative pronoun in the nominative case: '*are ye* alone?' '*when did he* come?' '*may we* go in?' '*what will he* do?' But '*who said* so?' '*what is* to be done?'

2. With the imperative mood: '*come ye*'; '*laud ye* the gods'; '*look thou* to that'.

3. In the conditional mood, when the conjunction is suppressed: '*had I* known that'; '*were I* in his place'.

4. When a wish or exclamation is expressed: '*may she* be happy'; 'how *would we* wish that Heaven had left us still—'; 'ah! *mayest thou* ever be what now thou art!'

5. When 'neither' or 'nor', signifying 'and not', precedes the verb: 'this was his fear, nor *was the apprehension* groundless'. 'Dr. Lancaster was desirous to serve a boy of such promise; nor *was an opportunity* long wanting.' 'He will not go; *neither will I.*'

6. In introducing the parts of a dialogue: '*said he*'; '*thought I*'; '*replied James*'.

7. For the sake of **emphasis**; as when a sentence is introduced by 'there', 'here', or other adverbial expressions: '*up started he*'; 'now abideth faith, hope, charity'. 'On the distant mainland *is seen* the town or village of Stromness' (Scott). 'Above, below and behind the city, as far as the eye can reach, *extends* the unbroken *forest*' (A. R. Wallace). 'Over the crushing vines, over the desolate streets, over the amphitheatre itself, far and wide, with many a mighty splash in the agitated sea, *fell* that awful *shower*' (Lytton).

The *Complement* of the predicate *follows the predicate verb.*

'The day is *clear*', 'kings are but *men*', 'this question is *of the utmost importance*'.

When the complement is a noun, we distinguish it from the subject by its position: 'angels are *spirits*'.

Inversion for emphasis.—The usual order is not unfrequently inverted, especially in poetry, for the sake of effective statement: '*Fair* laughs the morn'; 'all *bloodless* lay th' untrodden snow'; '*great* is Diana'; '*bitter* but *unavailing* were my regrets'. '*Childe Harold* was he hight.'

Verb and Object.

3. The Transitive Verb precedes its Object:
'we gained *a victory*'; 'you did not see *me*'.

Exceptions.

1. When the objective is a relative or interrogative pronoun, or a noun limited by a relative or interrogative adjective: 'this is the letter *that* he *wrote*'; 'the dead *which* he *slew* at his death were more than they *which* he *slew* in his life'; '*what* does the man *want*?' '*which house* do you prefer?'

2. For emphasis: '*treason and murder* he had been taught early in life *to expect* from everybody'; '*talent* I will *marry*, for *talent* I adore'; '*what I did* I did in honour'.

3. For the sake of closer connexion with a previous sentence. This inversion always put emphasis on the object. 'His passions and prejudices had led him into a great error. *That error* he determined to recant.' 'He insisted upon my asking pardon for affronting his king and him. *This proposal* I would by no means comply with.'

This inversion cannot often be practised in English, on account of causing ambiguity. Apart from the context, our only means of knowing which is subject and which is object is the order; hence the following expressions are of themselves uncertain: 'when thus the *son* the fervent *sire* addressed'; 'when *Thebes Epaminondas* rears again'; 'and all the *air* a solemn *stillness* holds'. Inversion is admissible when either the subject or the object is an inflected pronoun: 'two men *I* know', '*me* their swords encompassed'. Also when subject and object differ in number, and the verb shows its agreement with the subject: the sentence 'death *lays* all men low' may have its parts arranged in any order without loss of clearness. 'Wars into peace he turns' combines both conditions.

In the construction of verbs of 'giving', 'sending', 'telling', with the pronoun 'it', the personal adjunct is placed last: 'give it me'; 'tell it him'; 'he sent it us'. The form 'give me it' is a Scotticism.

Noun and Adjective.

4. The Adjective immediately precedes the Noun: '*bright* prospects'.

Exceptions.

1. When the adjective is accompanied by another adjective : as ' a man *just* and *wise* '; ' across the meadows *bare* and *brown* '; ' gods *partial, changeful, passionate, unjust* '.

2. When the adjective is enlarged by qualifying phrases : as ' a question *too important to be neglected* '; ' a patriot *disinterested in a high degree* '; ' in other words, the country was to be absolutely governed by a hereditary aristocracy, *the most needy, the most haughty, the most quarrelsome in Europe* '. Hence the adjectives ' adverse ', ' afraid ', ' conformable ', which require an enlargement to make complete sense, always follow the noun they qualify.

In poetry the adjective is often placed last : as ' the garden *fair* ', ' my own mother *dear* ', ' the primrose *pale* '.

A few expressions, including certain titles of French origin, almostly uniformly show the inverted arrangement : ' Prince Regent ', ' Heir Apparent ', ' Poet Laureate ', ' Governor-General ', ' States General ', ' court martial ', ' time immemorial ', ' knight errant '.

The most general direction is to *keep the noun and its qualifying adjuncts as close together as possible.*

Accordingly such sentences as the following are ill arranged : ' the *death* is announced *of Mr. Henry Archer,* inventor ', &c.; ' the country beyond which the *arts* cannot be traced *of civil society* or domestic life ' ; ' the ignorance of the age in mechanical arts rendered the *progress* very slow *of this new invention* ' ; ' the *legitimacy* is conceded *of repressing* violence or treachery ' ; ' *I* cannot blame thee, *who* am myself attacked with weariness ' (Shak.) ; ' this way will direct you to *a gentleman's* house *that* hath skill to take off these burdens ' (Bunyan).

When the enlargements are of great length we are to *avoid entangling them with other parts* of the sentence.

In the following passage some of the adjuncts precede, and the others follow, the noun :—' *Born to inherit the most illustrious monarchy in the world, and early united to the object of her choice, the amiable* PRINCESS, *happy in herself, and joyful in her future prospects,* little anticipated the fate that was so soon to overtake her '.

Sometimes *the enlargement is resumed* after the verb.

' The spirit of Francis Bacon was abroad ; *a spirit* admirably compounded of audacity and sobriety.' ' Ye shall die, *all of you.*' ' The emperor, nominally invested with the loftiest of

titles, was, in fact, no more than the head of a confederacy of secular and ecclesiastical princes ; *the head* of a body whose members were seldom in harmony.' 'The only course left was to imitate the fatal policy by which the empire had invited its own doom while striving to avert it ; *the policy* of matching barbarian against barbarian.'

We are always disposed to take the word preceding a substantive as a word modifying it ; and hence our facility in using nouns and phrases adjectively.

'A *gold* ring' ; 'a *carriage* gentleman' ; 'the *house-to-house* visitation'. Strictly regarded, these are highly condensed or elliptical expressions, interpreted by their juxtaposition : 'a ring *made of gold*' ; 'a gentleman *that rides in a carriage*' ; 'visitation from house to house'.

The three first, or *the first three ?* Great doubt exists as to which of these expressions is correct. Difficulties seem to attach to both. When we say the *three first*, it is asked, how can *three* be first ? and when we say the *first three*, we seem to imply that this should be followed by a second three, a third three, and so on. The form most commonly used is the 'first three' ; 'the *first six* books of Euclid' ; 'the *first ten* men you meet', 'the *first forty* years of the century', But there are occasions when good writers think the other form preferable ; thus, 'the *three first* gospels' ; 'the *two eldest* of the family' ; 'the *six nearest* your hand' ; 'the fathers of the *five first* centuries'. ' I have not numbered the lines except of the *four first* books' (Cowper). We may conceive the ground for the distinction on some such principle as this. Suppose a number of persons waiting for admission to a public spectacle. The manager wishes to give directions as to the order of admission. Now if we suppose it settled beforehand that three shall be admitted at a time, the only question remaining is *which* three, to which the answer is the three *first*. But if it be understood that they are to be admitted in the order that they stand in, the question is how many at a time, and the answer is the first *three*. The place of special emphasis is the second word, the first *three*, the three *first*. This is indicated in the phrase, ' the first *six* books of Euclid' ; for it is taken for granted that in geometry the order of proceeding is fixed, and the only inquiry that remains is, *how many* books are prescribed : the first *two*, the first *four*, the first *six*. In speaking of the 'three first gospels', it is supposed that a division is made of the gospels into two groups (there might be more if the number were greater) ; and that the first group contains three, and the second group one. The question then is supposed to be put - where are the three situated, and where the one ? and the reply is, the three *first*, the one *last* ; or it might have been the two *first*, the two *last*. If, as in Euclid, it had been necessary to study the gospels in a fixed consecutive order, the question would then have arisen, how many go to make the first division ? and we might have said the first *two*, the first *three*, as many actually do say.

5. The placing of the Article.

The rule of most practical importance as to the articles is to this effect : When two or more substantives following each other denote the same object, the article is placed only with the first :

as '*a* (or *the*) secretary and treasurer', the two offices being held
by the same person.   On the other hand, when the substantives
denote different objects, the article is repeated before each : as
'*the* secretary and *the* treasurer'.   Violations of this rule are
frequent.   '*The* old and new method' is wrong ; but we may
say correctly '*the* old and new methods', '*the* Old and New
Testaments'.

The following are examples of the rule :—'He shall come
again with glory to judge both *the* quick and *the* dead'; 'by
their tumultuous election, *a* Syrian, *a* Goth, or *an* Arab was
exalted to the throne of Rome, and was invested with despotic
power over *the* conquests, and over *the* country of the Scipios';
'he had compassion on *the poor and needy*'; '*a* cool head, *un*
unfeeling heart, and *a* cowardly disposition. prompted him, at
the age of nineteen, to assume the mask of hypocrisy, which he
never after laid aside'.

The incorrect construction is seen in these examples:—'When
therefore *the* chief priests and (*the*) officers saw him'; 'some of
the most sacred festivals in the Roman ritual were destined to
indulge the pious remembrance of *the* dead and (*the*) living'.

'He made a better soldier than *a* poet', means a better soldier
than a poet would make.

The same principle applies to the repetition of other words, as
prepositions, conjunctions, &c.: 'eternity invests every state,
whether *of* bliss, or *of* suffering, with an importance entirely its
own'; 'I speak *as* a father and *as* a friend'.

Pronoun and Antecedent.

6. Every Pronoun should have a distinct Antecedent.

When there are two words in a Clause, each capable
of being an antecedent, the determining circumstances
are **Proximity** and **Importance**.

1. As regards *proximity :* 'Solomon, the son of David, *who*
slew Goliath'.   Here the relative 'who' refers to the word
immediately preceding,—'David'.   'John gave James the book :
he was very much in want of it', *i.e.*, James, the last mentioned.

2. As regards *importance :* 'Solomon, the son of David, *who*
built the temple', might be justified on the ground that
'Solomon' is the *principal subject*, and 'the son of David' is
merely an apposition or explanatory clause, which should not
interfere with the reference of the relative to Solomon.   In fact
'Solomon-the-son-of-David is, as it were, a many-worded name.

'He hath made *him* to be sin for us, *who* knew no sin ', is to be interpreted on the rule of prominence ; otherwise.' who' might apply to 'he' or to 'us'.

The rule of proximity should be observed as *the preferable plan.*

'The *time* drew near at *which* the Houses must re-assemble.' Re-arrange thus : 'Now drew near the *time* at *which* (or *when*) the Houses must re-assemble '. One of the examples given in § 4 would be better arranged thus : 'this way will direct you to *the* house *of a gentleman that* hath skill to take off these burdens '. It is always desirable that the relative should stand as close to the antecedent as possible.

The following are examples of a **Confusion of Pronouns :—**

'*They* were summoned occasionally by *their* kings, when compelled by *their* wants and by *their* fears to have recourse to their aid.' Reduce the reference to the subject alone thus : ' by want and by fear '.

'Men look with an evil eye upon the good that is in others ; and think that *their* reputation obscures *them*, and that *their* commendable qualities do stand in *their* light; and, therefore, *they* do what *they* can to cast a cloud over *them*, that the bright shining of *their* virtues may not obscure *them*' (Tillotson). Here there are two subjects, and we cannot tell from the construction which of the two the pronouns severally refer to.

Again : 'All which, with the king's and queen's so ample promises to *him* (the treasurer) so few hours before the conferring the place on another, and the Duke of York's manner of receiving *him* (the treasurer) after *he* (the chancellor) had been shut up with *him* (the duke), as *he* (the treasurer) was informed, might very well excuse *him* (the treasurer) from thinking *he* (the chancellor) had some share in the affront *he* (the treasurer) had undergone ' (Clarendon).

Thackeray is responsible for this : 'She had met the most distinguished governors, generals, *and their ladies*, several of *whom* were *noblemen*'.

The neuter pronoun ' it ' gives rise to the greatest ambiguity, as has previously been shown. (See p. 29.)

Placing of the Adverb.

7. The Adverb is placed **before an Adjective, or another Adverb.**

'A *very* good man'; '*extremely* hard work'. 'He behaves *very* well'; 'he works *extremely* hard'.

The Adverb is placed **after an Intransitive Verb.**

'She dances *well*'; 'they work *hard*'.

When the verb is transitive, the Adverb **usually follows the Object.**

'He treated them *handsomely*'; 'I met him *very unexpectedly*'; 'bring the letter *instantly*'.

When the object is either emphatic or *long* (by means of adjuncts), then *a short adverbial expression* is best placed **between the Transitive Verb and the Object.**

'He imparts *without reserve* secrets of the highest moment.' 'He explains *with perfect simplicity* vast designs affecting all the governments of Europe.' 'The Captain whispered something *in Sir Roger's ear*, that lasted till the opening of the fifth act': here the object 'something' precedes the adverbial phrase, but is separated by it from the limiting adjective clause that ends the sentence. The arrangement suggested renders the sentence compact: 'the Captain whispered *in Sir Roger's ear* something that lasted till the opening of the fifth act'. In cases like the following the adverbial expression is liable to be attached wrongly to the subordinate predicate: 'He might be seized by any one that met him *as a robber*' (Hallam). Rearrange: 'he might be seized *as a robber* by any one that met him'.

The Adverb is placed **between Auxiliary and Participle.**

'I have *gently* hinted my intentions'; 'I shall *never* forget your kindness'; 'he has *carefully* studied the case'.

The most general rule is to place Adverbs, and Adverbial Adjuncts, or qualifying circumstances, so as to affect what they are intended to affect.

8. The word requiring most attention is **only.**

According to the position of 'only', the very same words may be made to express very different meanings.

(1.) 'He *only* lived for their sakes.' Here 'only' must be held as qualifying '*lived* for their sakes', the emphasis being on

'lived', the word immediately adjoining. The meaning then
is 'he *lived* ', but did not *work*, did not *die*, did not do any
other thing for their sakes.

(2.) 'He lived *only* for their sakes.' 'Only' now qualifies
'for their sakes ', and the sentence means he lived for this one
reason, namely, for their sakes, and not for any other reason.

(3.) 'He lived for their sakes *only*.' The force of the word
when placed at the end is peculiar. Then it often has a diminu-
tive or disparaging signification. 'He lived for their sakes ',
and not for any more worthy reason. 'He gave sixpence *only* ',
is an insinuation that more was expected.

(4.) By the use of 'alone ', instead of 'only ', other meanings
are expressed. 'He *alone* lived for their sakes ': that is, *he,
and nobody else*, did so. 'He lived for their sakes *alone* ', or
'for the sake of them *alone* '; that is, not for the sake of any
other persons. 'It was *alone* by the help of the Confederates
that any such design could be carried out.' Better 'only '.

It has already been seen (page 106) that 'only ' preceding a
sentence or clause has the force of an adversative conjunction :
'I should be ashamed to offer at saying any of those civil things
in return to your obliging compliments in regard to my trans-
lation of Homer, *only* (but, yet, still) I have too great a value
for you not to be pleased with them ' (Pope).

Further examples of the construction of 'only '.—'When men grow
virtuous in their old r ge, they *only* make a sacrifice to God of the Devil's
leavings ' (Pope). Here 'only ' is rightly placed. 'Think *only* of the
past as its remembrance gives you pleasure ', should be 'think of the
past, *only* as its remembrance ', &c. 'As he did not leave his name, it was
only known that a gentleman had called on business ': 'it was known'
only '. 'I can *only* refute the accusation by laying before you the whole' ;
this would mean 'the only thing I am able to do is to refute ; I may not
retaliate, or let it drop, I must *refute* it '. 'The negroes are to appear at
church *only* in boots ' ; that is, when the negroes go to church they are to
have no clothing but boots. 'The negroes are to appear *only* at church,
in boots ', might mean that they are not to appear anywhere but at
church, whether in boots or out of them. The proper arrangement would
be to connect the adverbial adjunct 'in boots ' with its verb 'appear ',
and to make 'only ' qualify 'at church ' and no more ; 'the negroes are
to appear in boots *only* at church '. 'Others killed partridges—he *only*
killed time ' ; this might imply that he did nothing else but kill time.
This is a proper case for the diminutive position of the word. 'Others
killed partridges, he killed time *only* ', *i.e.* (sarcastically) nothing of more
consequence than time.

9. Not—but only.

Errors frequently arise in the use of 'not—but only ', to under-
stand which we must attend to the force of the whole expression.
'He did *not* pretend to extirpate French music, *but only* to
cultivate and civilize it.' Here the 'not' is obviously mis-
placed. 'He pretended, or professed, *not* to extirpate.'

10. Not only— but also.

There is still greater complication with these. We may illustrate the construction as follows :—Suppose it is said, (1) 'He gave them food *and* clothing'. This means simply that he gave those two things. (2) 'He gave them *both* food *and* clothing'; that is, it would have been liberal to give either, but he gave both. (3) 'He gave *not only* food, *but also* clothing': food he might have been expected to give, but besides that, he gave, what was hardly to be expected, clothing. The 'but' has its usual power of causing a surprise : the 'not only' gives the ordinary course of things; the 'but' marks an addition, or something not included in our natural expectations. In the following sentence 'not only—but' does not give the author's meaning :— 'We are monished here of charity, and taught that God is *not only* a private Father, *but* a common Father to the whole world'. Here the meaning is that God *is not* a private Father; the expression supposes that he *is* a private Father. The 'only' should be omitted. In the passage from Addison— ' By greatness I do *not only* mean the bulk of any single object, but the largeness of a whole view '—the same error is committed, and there is also a misplacement of the 'not'. ' By greatness I mean *not* the bulk of any single object, *but* the largeness of a whole view'. Shorter : ' By greatness I mean largeness, *not* in any single object, *but* in a whole view '.

Another point is raised by the following :— '*not only* Lydia, *but all* were concerned' ; *i.e.*, it was understood that Lydia was concerned, but not that all. (*including* Lydia) were considered. It would be necessary to say '*not only* Lydia, *but all the rest of the family* were concerned' : or, '*not* Lydia *alone, but all* were concerned'. ' *Not only* England, *but also* France and Austria. protested ' is correct ; '*not only* England, *but all* Europe was, alarmed ' would involve the same error as above : ' *not* England *alone, but all* Europe ', or '*not only* England, *but also the rest* of Europe '.*

' It is *not only* hard to distinguish between too little and too

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* The translation of Paul's appeal to Agrippa is not in strict accordance. with the English idiom. ' I would to God that *not only* thou, *but also all* that hear me this day, were *both* almost *and* altogether such as I am, except these bonds'. He here wishes both Agrippa and all that heard him to be as himself. But Agrippa was *one* that heard him, and should. be excluded. Then again, they could not be *both* ' almost ' and ' altogether '. The following rendering would avoid these objections ; ' I. would to God that *not* thou *alone, but all* that hear me this day, were *not* almost *merely, but* altogether such as I am, except these bonds '.

. ' I say *not* unto thee, until seven times, but until seventy times seven '. Here the ' not ' is manifestly out of its place. ' I say unto thee, *not until* seven times *only, but* until seventy times seven '.

much reform, but between the good and evil intentions of different reformers.' We here expect '*not only* hard, *but impossible*'. 'It is hard to distinguish *not only* between too little and too much reform, *but* between the good and (the) evil intentions of different reformers.'

II. **The wrong placing of 'not' often gives rise to** *an imperfect form of negation.*

'John and James were *not* there', means that John and James were not there in company. It does not exclude the presence of one of them. The negative should precede in this case : '*neither* John *nor* James was there '. 'Our company was *not* present' (as a company, but some of us might have been) ; 'no member of our company was present '.

12. **At least.**

'The Romans understood liberty *at least* as well as we.' This must be interpreted to mean 'the Romans understood liberty *as well as we* understand liberty '. The intended meaning is 'that whatever things the Romans failed to understand they understood *liberty* '. To express this meaning we might put it thus :—'the Romans understood *at least* liberty, as well as we *do* ' ; 'liberty, *at least*, the Romans understood as well as we do '. ' A tear, *at least*, is due to the unhappy ' ; '*at least* a tear is a due to the unhappy'; 'a tear is due *at least* to the unhappy '; 'a tear is due to the unhappy *at least*'; all express different meanings.—'This cannot, *often at least*, be done ' ; 'this cannot be done *often, at least*'. (1. 'It often happens that this cannot be done.' 2. 'It does not often happen that this can be done.') So, 'man is *always* capable of laughing ' ; 'man is capable of laughing *always* '.

13. *Misplaced circumstances, or adverbial adjuncts, generally.*

To bring every clause into juxtaposition with the part that it is meant to qualify is as requisite as to place single words properly. Examples have been given incidentally. The following are a few more instances of misplaced clauses and adjuncts :—

' All these circumstances brought close to us a state of things which we never thought to have witnessed (*to witness*) in peaceful England. *In the sister island, indeed, we had read of such horrors*, but now they were brought home to our very household hearths' (Swift). 'We had read, indeed, of such horrors occurring in the sister island ', &c.

'The savage people in many places of America, except the government of small families, have no government at all, and live at this day in that savage manner as I said before ' (Hobbes). Perhaps the second and third clauses had better to be transposed.

'Some dozen years afterwards, I had an editorial successor (in the *Examiner*), Mr. Fonblanque, who had all the wit for which I toiled, *without making any pretensions to it*' (Leigh Hunt). Here the concluding clause, if we were to judge by its position, would qualify *I;* but it is meant to qualify 'who' (Mr. Fonblanque). More explicit thus : 'without *his* making any pretensions to it '.

'I shall have a comedy for you, in a season or two at farthest, *that* I believe will be worth your acceptance' (Goldsmith). Place the second clause first, in order to connect the relative with its antecedent —' comedy '.

Placing of Prepositions.

14. Prepositions should be placed as near as possible to the words they govern.

The following sentence is faulty in this respect :—' appears Lausanne—*with* its foot *the little village* of Ouchy '.

But it is to be remarked that there is a certain *inversion* allowable in English, whereby a preposition is far removed from its regimen. The principal case is *when it governs a relative or interrogative word.* 'The gipsies are a people *whom* we know next to nothing *about.*' ' *What* we are going *to*, is abundantly obscure ; but *what* all men are going *from*, is very plain ' (John Sterling). ' *What* are you looking *for* ?'

There are also not unfrequent cases of *emphasis*, where the word governed by the preposition is required to go prominently forward : ' Now *Sir Francis*, though he was for a long time our hero, we never exchanged a word *with.* '

Further examples :—' Me, *whom* their foundation binds them to pray *for*, they suffer to die like a houseless dog ' (Scott). ' The *oddity* of character *which* great men are sometimes remarkable *for*, Mapertuis was not entirely free *from* ' (Goldsmith). ' *That which* ordinary men are fit *for*, I am qualified *in* ' (Shak.).

Placing of Conjunctions.

15. The members of double-membered conjunctions should be placed in right correspondence.

The single-word conjunctions cause very little trouble.

Perhaps the chief blemish to style arising from mismanagement of these is seen when 'however' or 'therefore' is postponed too far.

'Not—but', and 'not only—but (also)' have already received attention (§§ 9, 10). It remains to exemplify 'neither—nor'. 'He would *neither* give wine, *nor* oil, *nor* money' (Thackeray): the conjunctions should be placed each before one of the excluded objects; 'neither *give*' implies 'neither (some other *verb*)', a meaning not intended. Re-arrange thus, taking all the common parts of the contracted sentences together : 'He would give *neither* wine, *nor* oil, *nor* money'. So : 'she can *neither* help her beauty, *nor* her courage, *nor* her cruelty' (Thackeray). 'He had *neither* time to intercept *nor* to stop her' (Scott). 'Some *neither* can for wits *nor* critics pass', (Pope.)

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16. Ellipsis : the leaving out of some part of the full expression.

In addition to the three great processes, named Concord, Government, and Order of words, grammarians consider that certain cases of the syntax of sentences are explained by ELLIPSIS, which would therefore be ranked as a fourth binding process of composition. Many examples of ellipsis have already occurred. The following are further examples : 'I sent to the bookseller's (*shop*)' ; 'whose (is) this image and superscription?' 'that (*point*) is the point' ; 'the greatest man (*of the men*) on (*the*) earth' ; 'they love each (*one loves the*) other' ; 'come (*you*)' ; 'how shall I curse (*him*) whom God hath not cursed ?' 'who's that (*that*) knocks ?'

> An honest man, close buttoned to the chin,
> *Broad cloth without, and a warm heart within.*

Here there is an ellipsis of the participle. 'Can you sing ?' 'I will try to (*sing*)' ; '(*I*) thank you' ; 'nothing (*is*) so good, but it may be abused' ; 'they applied to the Duke of all men*. 'The virtuous ( ) alone are happy ( ).' '( ) Better ( ) be with the dead ( ).' '( ) Please, don't ( ).' 'When did you ( ) reach ( ) home ?' '( ) An hour later than we expected ( ).' 'His future ( ) is as dark ( ) as ever ( ).' 'Though ( ) defeated, he still pushes ( ) onwards.' 'You and I, if not he ( ), will certainly ( ) go soon.'

17. Pleonasm : the expression or indication of some part of the meaning more than once ; excess of words.

This is the opposite of Ellipsis. It is a device sometimes resorted to for rhetorical force. The following are further

examples in addition to those that have already occurred: 'for *the deck, it* was their field of fame'; 'my banks, *they* are furnished with bees'; 'the night *it* was gloomy, the wind *it* was high'. 'We all *of us* complain of the shortness of time'. 'The friends of my youth, where are *they?*' 'The interests of his family, the security of his dynasty, *these* were his end and aim.' 'Truth, like a torch, the more it's shook, *it* shines.' 'He that witholdeth corn, the people shall curse *him.*' 'Make speed *from hence.*' 'Because I believed, *therefore* have I spoken.'

Double Negation.—Here may be mentioned the use of more than a single negative to express denial. This was usual in Old English. In the Elizabethan age, the double negative appears often to strengthen the denial. 'I never was *nor never* will be false'; 'I would *not* have believed *no* tongue but Hubert's'.

Now, however, it is the rule in English that two negatives make a positive; the one neutralizes the other; as 'I entertain a *not unfavourable* opinion of him'. Hence, when denial is intended, it is an inconsistency to use more than one negative. 'They cannot utter the one, *nor* will they *not* utter the other'; 'this is *not* always the case *neither*'. 'They will *not* be disappointed at the result *no* more than you are yourself.'

18. If we were to dwell on incidental and exceptional constructions, we might note the following as a case of **Parenthesis,** or the insertion of an unconnected expression in the middle of a sentence : 'our ideas are movements of the nerves of sense, as of the optic nerve, in recollecting visible ideas, *suppose* of a triangular piece of ivory'.

OF PURITY.

Besides observing the rules of grammar, we must employ only such words as really belong to the language, and we must use them in their correct sense. To attend to these conditions is to have regard to **Purity.**

The errors against purity are classed under three heads : *Barbarism, Solecism,* and *Impropriety.*

Barbarism.

This consists in using words that are not English. Such are—1. *Obsolete words.*

In old writers there occur many words that have now ceased to be current; some of them being no longer intelligible. Such are 'hight', 'clept', 'erst', 'umwhile', 'behest', 'addulce', 'surcease', 'uneath', 'whilom', &c.

2. *New words* not fully adopted into the language.

New words are in part borrowed from foreign languages. Some are introduced for good reasons, as new scientific terms, and the names of new materials ('gutta-percha', for example). But many are used without much necessity. Such are most of the following words from the French:—'sortie', 'dernier resort', 'beaux arts', 'belles lettres' (polite literature), 'politesse', 'délicatesse', 'hauteur', 'connoisseur', 'reconnoitre', 'agréments', 'opine', 'ignore', 'fraîcheur', 'esprit de corps', 'cortège', 'soubriquet', 'habitué', 'boudoir', 'espionage', 'souvenir', 'parole', 'en rapport', 'arrière pensée', 'en passant', 'en revanche'. Some indicate shades of meaning that we cannot express by English words, and hence the pretext for using them; for example: 'ennui', 'prestige', 'naïveté', 'dolce far niente' (Ital.), 'verbiage', 'solidarity'.

It is a special objection to the employment of these words, that the pronunciation of them is totally different from the pronunciation of our language. In books they are generally printed in Italics, to mark that they are not English.

A number of Latin words and phrases have obtained currency in their original form; as '*omus probandi*', '*obiter dictum*', '*sub judice*', '*res gestæ*', '*a priori*', '*a posteriori*', '*a fortiori*', '*non sequitur*', '*ad hominem*', '*verbatim et literatim*', 'in the *interim*, 'a *sine qua non*', '*in extenso*', &c. It is well to employ such phrases as little as possible.

Newly-coined words are barbarous until their adoption has become general. There is a constant tendency to coin new words, a great number of which never obtain currency. Thus, '*martyrized*', for 'martyred', '*incumberment*' for 'encumbrance', '*proclivity*', '*productivity*', '*acquests*', are words suggested, but not adopted.

Many new words and phrases that have come from America have been more or less freely adopted; as 'outsiders', 'coincidences', 'immigrants', 'progress' (as a verb), &c. The ground of their adoption is necessity or convenience.

Solecism.

The words employed may be English, but they may be combined in a form that is not English. This is Solecism.

Bad Syntax is included in the definition, but there may be Solecisms that do not violate grammar; they are then said to be violations of *idiom*.

If we say ' I have hunger ', we do not commit bad grammar; still the combination is not English : it is French. ' I feel a smell ' is grammatical, but not according to idiom. ' I will speak my mind ', ' get thee gone ' (we cannot say ' make thee gone '), ' many a man ', ' you had best ', ' do honour to ' (Shakespeare says ' do *grace* to Cæsar's corpse '), ' once and again ', are English idioms, which have come into use from very different causes and must now be observed.

Impropriety.

This means **employing words in a wrong sense.**

1. Impropriety *in single words*.

Scott and Thackeray use the expression, 'There was a *quantity* of people present ', for ' there *were a number* '.

It often happens that two words have similar, but not identical meanings, so that the one cannot be used for the other on every occasion. Such terms are called *synonymous*, or *synonymes*. The following are examples :—' all, every, each ' ; ' allow, permit ' ; ' assist, help ' ; ' astonish, surprise ', ' belief, faith ' ; ' pleasure, delight, joy ' ; ' repentance, remorse ' ; ' principle, truth ' ; ' observe, remark ' ; ' on the contrary, on the other hand '.

Another class of improprieties originate in not adverting to the *composition* of a word, or to the precise force of the prefix or the suffix combined with the root. Thus : ' Ramus published a Greek grammar, with many important *variances* from his precursors ', for ' variations ' ; ' the *observation* of the Sabbath'; ' the *observance* ' ; ' the Greek is a language superior in *riches* ' (' *richness* ') ; ' he felt himself compelled to acknowledge the *justice* (*justness*) of my remark ' ; ' the *negligence* (*neglect*) of this leaves us exposed '.

Sometimes we are *misled by similarity of sound*, as in using the word ' demean ' (signifying ' to behave ', ' to conduct one's self', as in ' demeanour ') in the sense of ' lowering ', ' debasing ', ' making *mean* '. Thackeray, indeed, seems to use ' demean ' as equivalent to ' degrade ', ' debase ', three times out of four ; alternating with this the sense of ' behave '. (See *Philip*). ' They form a procession to *proceed* (precede) the palanquin of ambassador ' ; ' he *rose* (raised) the price of bread last week ' ; ' it *lays* (lies) on the table ' ; ' they *wrecked* (wreaked) their vengeance '.

2. Impropriety *in phrases.*

This refers to expressions that contain, when analyzed, some inconsistency or absurdity. A common instance of the class is seen in the following example :—'it celebrates the Church of England as the most perfect *of all others*', meaning 'the most perfect *of all*'. So : 'Northumberland was the most extensive of any Anglo-Saxon state' (Hallam) : for either 'the *most* extensive *of all the Anglo-Saxon states*', or '*more* extensive *than ang other* Anglo-Saxon state'. 'He has made the highest number of marks ever made in any former year.' 'Shakespeare was the man who of all modern, and perhaps *ancient* poets, had the largest and most comprehensive soul' (Dryden) : there is at least some ambiguity here.

> 'The comeliest man of men *since born*
> His *sons*. The fairest *of her daughters* Eve '.

This makes Adam one of his sons, and Eve one of her daughters ! 'I had like to have gotten one or two broken heads for my impertinence' ; 'I was once or twice likely to get my head broken for my impertinence '.

> 'Like kings we lose the conquests gained before,
> By vain ambition still to *make them more*'.

'Conquests gained before ', cannot be made 'more '.

Pleonastic expressions are sometimes to be ranked as improprieties. For example, the case of double negatives (page 328). So : 'These two men are *both* equal in strength', is an inconsistent expression, if it be meant that one is equal to the other.

Many improprieties are **provincialisms**, or district peculiarities. Thus, we have Scotticisms, Irishisms, Americanisms, Cockneyisms.

The Scotticism consists, not in the employment of purely Scotch words, but in the employment of English words in a Scotch meaning or construction. A list of Scotticisms is here appended, in addition to those already noticed.

SCOTTICISMS.

1. *Un-English use of Words.*

He was *amissing.*—Missing.

I have nothing *ado*, or nothing *else ado.*—To do.

He has been *ailing* for some weeks.—Unwell.

I would rather go *as* stay.—Than.

He is *away.* He is absent, not present.

How are you to-day? Very *bad.*—Ill. *Badly.*—Ill.

His watch is *before.*—Fast.

Your watch is *behind.*—Slow. I fear I shall be *behind.* Late.

When I shall be *beside* you.—With.

By-gone, *by-past.*—Past. Shakespeare has *gone-by.*

A sugar-*bowl.*—Basin.

He walked at the *burial.*—Funeral.

They never *cast-out.*—Disagree, or quarrel.

Cattle in Scotch includes cows, oxen, &c., but not so particularly horses as in England.

I was his *caution*.—Security.

Close the door.—Shut.

For common.—Commonly.

Compliment.—A present.

Corn the horses.—Feed.

A *couple of* hens.—Two hens.

A *coarse* day ; *coarse* weather.— Bad. But we may say, a *fine* day, and *fine* weather.

Are your children *at the counting ?* —Studying arithmetic.

A *cloth-brush*.—A clothes-brush.

To *crave* a man for a debt,—To dun him or demand payment of him. *To crave a debt*, or *to crave* payment, might be proper.

Were you *crying* on me ?—Calling.

To disabuse is sometimes used for 'to abuse'.

He is *dull*.—Deaf. The day is *dull*.—Overcast.

An oaken *deal*.—Plank. Deals, or deal-boards, are made of fir or pine.

He is much distressed with an *inward trouble*. With an internal disease.

Give me a *drink*.—Give me drink, some drink, or something to drink.

A *faint*.—A fainting-fit ; a swoon.

I *feel* afraid.—I am afraid.

I *feel* a sweet smell.—I smell a sweet smell, I smell something agreeable. To *feel a smell* is as repugnant to the English idiom as to *see a sound*.

He *fevered* ; he *took a fever*.—He had fever ; or he was taken, or seized, with fever.

I *find* no pain.—Feel.

Flesher.—Butcher.

A *flower* (bunch of flowers).—A nosegay.

Fog is a Scotch name for moss.

For ordinary.—Ordinarily, usually, commonly.

A *four*-square table.—A square table.

Fresh weather.—Soft, open, not frosty.

Friend.—Used for a relation (in blood).

Frighted.—Afraid, frightened.

The *frost* is slippery.—The ice.

Gear.—Wealth or riches.

I was unable to *get*.—Get away.

My *glasses*.—Spectacles.

Goblet.—Saucepan.

'Greedy' and 'greediness' are English, but *greed* is Scotch.

The boy was ill-*guided*.—Ill-used, ill-treated.

He fell in the *gutter*.—In the dirt.

What's o'clock ? *Half six*.- Half an hour past five, or half past five. Five minutes *from* twelve. —Five minutes to twelve, or before twelve ; or, it wants five minutes of twelve. (*By five minutes from twelve* an Englishman would understand *five minutes past twelve*.)

Hard fish. —Dried fish, or salt fish.

I was in London last *harvest*.— Autumn.

He id of a street.—Upper end.

Sor: head.—Headache.

A *hirer* in Scotland is one who lends a horse for hire. In England it is one who borrows a thing, and pays money for the use of it ; or who employs another and pays him wages.

Inkholder.—Inkhorn.

To *ken*.—To know. In modern poetical English *to ken* is to descry, to see, at a distance.

Kindle a fire —(Not improper, but the more usual English word is 'Light'.)

To *labour* the ground.—To till the ground.

Fodder is *large*.—Plentiful, in plenty.

Every *lawful* day.—Every weekday.

In old English and in Scotch, *to learn* means both to give and to receive instruction ; but in English it is now confined to the latter meaning.

He is still *in life*.—Alive.

I *lifted* a pin from the carpet.— Picked up.

Lime for *mortar* is Scotch. Mortar is the cement when prepared ; and lime, sand, and water are the materials.

He was *lost* in the river.—Drowned. If the body be carried away, or *not found*, the person may be said to be lost.

In old English and in Scotch, *meat* means food in general. In modern English it denotes fleshmeat.

I do not *mind* that I ever saw you before.—Remember.   To *mind* is in English to attend to, as ' *mind* your business '.

The project *misgave*.—Failed, or miscarried. ' My *mind* misgave me ', is correct.

The boy *misguides* his clothes.—Abuses or sullies.   To *misguide* is to mislead.

On the *morn*,—Morrow.

Napkin.—Pocket-handkerchief.

The omission of a point sometimes makes great *odds* in the sense.—A great difference.

If I had it in my *offer*, I would not accept of it.—In my choice. The offer is here supposed to be not *mine*, but made by another.

This bread is *old*.—Stale.

Cut *out* your hair.— Off.

Take *out* your glass.—Take your glass.

In an *overly* manner.—Cursory, or superficial.

A *pair* of ducks ; a *pair* of partridges.—Two ducks ; a brace of partridges.

The *park* is well ploughed.—Field.

Plainstones.— Pavement.

He was *pointed* in his answers.—Exact and concise Pointed, in the figurative sense, applied to language, conveys the idea of wit or conceit.

A gentleman's *policies*.—Pleasuregrounds.

Pouch is used in Scotland, and was used in England, for *pocket*. But a pocket is inserted in the clothes, a pouch is not.

He lives *presently* in London.—At present.

To *pull* up by the roots.—To pluck up by the roots. To *pull* a flower.—To pluck a flower. One might *pull* a flower without *pucking* it. Separation seems to be implied in the latter word.

Queer, in English, is odd, strange, particular.   In Scotland it is used in the sense of comical, humorous.

He will not *readily* do that.— He is not likely to do that.   One would *readily* imagine.—Naturally.   *Readily*, in English, denotes with little delay or hindrance.

Considerable arrears being now *resting* to the soldiers.—Remaining.

The babe *roars*.—Cries.

Roasted cheese.—Toasted cheese.

Roof of a room.—Ceiling.

He *roves* in a fever.—Raves.   To *rove* is to roam or wander.

I am *scarce* of fodder.—Short of fodder, have not a sufficiency.

A *Scots* idiom.—A Scotch idiom.

He *scoured* the knives.—Cleaned.

That dress *sets* her well.—Becomes.

For my *share* I can only say, &c.—For my part.

Shearers.—Reapers.   A shearer, in England, is one that cuts with shears. ' A sheep before her *shearers* is dumb.'

The ship is at the *shore*.—Quay, wharf. The shore is the coast of the sea.

Have you any *silver ?*—Change.

I will answer the letter *so* soon as I receive it.—As.   It is correct to say, ' I did not receive the letter *so* soon as I expected it '.

A *soft* day.—Wet.

The candlestick is *sitting* in the press.—Stands in the cupboard.

Some better.— A little, something. You will *some* day know it.—One.

Do you *snuff ?*—Take snuff.

The servant was *sorting* the room at the time.—Putting in order.

Is your watch out of *sorts ?*— Out of order.

Speak to me.—Listen to me.

In Scotland *spice* is used for pepper, and *corn* for oats. But pepper, cloves, cinnamon, mace, are different sorts of spice ; and oats, barley, rye, wheat, are different kinds of corn.

A *winding stair* goes from top to bottom.—Winding stairs.

The horse *stammers*.—Stumbles.

He *stopped* three months with them.—Remained, resided, stayed.

In Scotland the word *storm* is used to signify a storm of snow, or snowy weather. Even the expression *lying storm* is made use of.

A man's *subjects*.—Effects.

Send me a *swatch* of the cloth.—Sample.

Sweet butter.—Fresh butter.

Sweet milk.—New milk.

Tell the man to come here.—Bid the man come here or hither. Or tell the man that I wish to speak to him.

The two boys *strove*.—Quarrelled.

Pope was a *tender* man.—Weakly.

This donation was the more acceptable, *that* it was given without solicitation.—Because.

He is twenty years old, or thereby. —Thereabout, or thereabouts.

The church was very *throng*.—Full, crowded.

A *timber* candlestick.—Wooden.

Tradesman, in Scotland, is one that works with his hands at a trade. In England it is a shopkeeper, who either does or does not work with his hands.

Sore trouble.—Painful disease.

James is *turned* a great student.—Has become.

Wainscot, for 'oak', is a Scotticism.—Wainscot, in the English sense, is the inner lining of a wall with any sort of wood.

Lend me your knife. I cannot *want* it.—Do without it.

The *water of* Don.—The River Don.

I *weary* when I sit alone.—Become weary. *Weary*, in England, is a transitive verb; as 'walking *wearies* me'.

The *weaving* or *working* of stockings is a great manufacture in Aberdeenshire.—Knitting.

I rose *whenever* I heard you call.— When, as soon as. *Whenever* is *at what ever* time.

Whitsunday.—Whitsuntide.

Some say that our *whole* actions are selfish.—All our actions. His *whole* friends forsook him.— All his friends.

An old *wife*.—An old woman. A wife is a woman who has a husband.

What's your *will*?—What do you want?

I never *witnessed* anything so ridiculous.—Beheld, or saw. Last night I *witnessed* a very agreeable conversation. Was present at.

Mr. —— is come ; I hear his *word*. —Voice.—Have you any *word* to your brother.—Have you any message ?

Carpenters, joiners, cabinet-makers, &c., are, in Scotland, called *wrights*, and sometimes *square-wrights*. Wright is workman or artificer ; but in England is used in composition only ; as ' ship-wright', ' wheel-wright '.

A *writer*.—An attorney. In England a writer is an author.

A *yard*.—A garden.

Yesternight.—Last night.

2. *Un-English Phrases.*

Butter and bread.—Bread and butter. In all similar phrases bread has the precedency ; as 'bread and milk', 'bread and cheese', &c.

I behoved to go.—It behoved me to go. I was obliged to go.

I would die *before I would* break my word.—Rather than break.

A *bit bread*, a *bit paper*.—A bit of bread, a bit of paper.

To cause him to do it, is better than *to cause him do it*. But *to make him do it* is better than *to make him to do it* ; which last phrase, however, though uncommon, is not without authority. Again, *I made him do it* is right ; but *he was made do it* is wrong. It must be, *he was made to do it*.

I would have you *to know*.—I would have you know.

To *play cards*.—To play at cards.

To *cast up a fault to one*.—To upbraid one with a fault.

A letter *conceived in* the following words.—Containing.

To hinder *to do*.—To hinder from doing.

What *like is it*?—What is it like ?

Well, *there* is no matter.—No matter, or it is no matter.

The child *took* the *cold*.—Was seized with, or taken ill of, small-pox.

Give me *a clean* plate.—Change my plate.

A *piece bread*.—A piece of bread.

To *think shame*.—To be ashamed.

He *thinks long* for summer.—He longs for summer. ('Think long' occurs in *Roister Doister*, the earliest English Comedy, 1553.)

Everything succeeds *to a wish*.—

As one would wish, according to our wishes.

He *was in use* to walk every day.—He used to walk, or was wont to walk.

He *has a good hand of write.*—He writes well.

I am going *to play myself.*—To play.

Who do you sit under?—Whose Church do you go to?

You may *lay your account with* opposition.—You may expect, or reckon upon, opposition.

The clock *is standing.*—Has stopped.

He *wants out.*—He wishes to go out.

I *slipped a foot* and fell down.—My foot slipped and I fell.

James and John are perpetually *quarrelling with one another.*—Are perpetually quarrelling.

It is ten *years ago since* he died.—It is ten years since he died.

I can sing none.—I cannot sing at all.

When *does the church go in?*—When does service begin?

Take it *(to)* yourself.

Are you for any pudding?—Will you take?

Getting *his breakfast.*—Taking breakfast. I take an egg *to* (for) breakfast.

I can't *get into* my box.—I can't open.

I will *let you see it.*—Show it you.

I am going to *(my)* bed—*(my)* dinner.

Almost never.—Seldom or never.

How far does he go with you? No *more than* to Edinburgh.—Farther.

PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation divides paragraphs and sentences by points or stops, with a view *to assist us in discovering readily the connexions of the words,* and *to indicate the pauses required in reading.*

It has been seen that the reference of qualifying adjuncts is to be determined principally by their proximity to the words they qualify. Punctuation is an additional help.

The chief stops are these: the **comma** (,), the **semicolon** (;), and the full stop, or **period** (.). The **colon** (:) is something intermediate between the semicolon and full stop, but is not often required.

The other stops are—the *interrogation* (?), put at the end of a question; the *parentheses* ( ), and the *brackets* [ ], to indicate a remark thrown in without connexion with the rest of the sentence; the *dash* (—); and the *exclamation* (!).

The Comma.

I. A very long Subject is separated from the Predicate by a comma.

The comma is used before the verb if the subject is rendered very long by means of adjuncts : ' *The circumstance of his being unprepared to adopt immediate and decisive measures*, was represented to the Government '.

But in ordinary cases a stop should not be placed between the subject and the verb : ' To be totally indifferent to praise or censure is a real defect of character '.

2. Co-ordinating adjuncts of the subject are isolated by commas.

The comma is used before and after a participle or participial phrase when co-ordinating, and not restrictive : ' The jury, *having retired for half an hour*, brought in a verdict for the defendant ' ; ' *encouraged by his first successes*, he redoubled his efforts '. But when the participial phrase is restrictive, the comma is not used, it being improper to separate a limiting adjunct from the word limited by it : ' A king *depending on the support of his subjects* cannot rashly go to war '.

The same rule extends to adjectives and nouns in apposition, when they are qualified by other words, and are in their effect co-ordinating rather than restrictive : ' The stranger, *unwilling to obtrude himself on our notice*, left in the morning ' ; ' Rome, *the city of the Emperors*, became the city of the Popes '. Even without adjuncts, a word in apposition, especially when adding new information, is often enclosed in commas : ' Paul, *the Apostle* ', &c. But it is advisable so to punctuate as to maintain the distinction between restrictive and co-ordinating adjuncts.

3. An Adverbial Phrase preceding the verb, or its subject, is usually followed by a comma.

' *In truth*, I could not tell ' ; ' *to sum up*, the matter is this '; ' *everything being ready*, they departed '; ' *by looking a little deeper*, the reason will be found '.

When complex adverbial phrases come between the subject and the verb, they are placed between commas.

4. The name of a person addressed is isolated by commas.

' *John*, come here ' ; ' tell me, *boy*, what is your name ? '

5. A Phrase or quotation that is either the subject or the object of the verb, is usually followed or preceded by a comma.

The most frequent cases perhaps do not occur in *simple* sentences, and often, especially if the phrase or quotation be long, a colon is used. 'He said, " Let us go hence ".'

COMPLEX SENTENCES.

1. A Noun Clause that is the subject of a verb, if long, should be followed by a comma.

'*That the work of forming and perfecting the character is difficult*, is generally allowed.'

If the clause follows the verb, a comma does not usually precede : 'It is known *that a full examination took place*'.

So an object noun clause is not usually preceded by a comma, unless it is of very great length.

2. A restrictive Adjective Clause is not separated by a comma from the noun.

This is on the principle already laid down concerning restrictive adjuncts.

On the other hand, a co-ordinating clause, introduced by the relative, is preceded and, if need be, followed by a comma : 'I went to view the river, *which I found greatly swollen*'.

An adjective clause has a comma placed after it when it has the effect of very much lengthening the subject of the principal verb : 'Any one *that refuses to earn an honest livelihood*, is not a subject for charity '. This is on the same principle as Rule I. for the simple sentence.

A comma is also necessary at the end of such clauses if followed by an adverbial adjunct of the principal verb, which otherwise might be referred to the subordinate clause ; 'I refused to employ the man that he recommended, *because of his unfitness for the post*'.

3. Adverbial clauses are separated by commas unless they are short and closely connected with the main sentence.

'*If the premises were admitted*, I should deny the conclusion '; '*where your treasure is*, there will your heart be also '; 'send me word *before you come* '.

COMPOUND SENTENCES.

Co-ordinate sentences, expressed at full length, are generally separated by commas.

'But his pride is greater than his ignorance, and what he wants in knowledge he supplies by sufficiency.'

A slight amount of contraction does not dispense with the rule : ' A man of polite imagination can converse with a picture, and find an agreeable companion in a statue '.

But when the sentences are very closely related to each other, and connected by the conjunctions ' and ', ' or ', ' nor ', the comma is omitted : ' I made haste and overtook him ' ; ' neither money nor men were wanting '. A clause introduced by an arrestive conjunction, ' but ', &c., must be separated by a comma from what precedes, owing to the break in the sense : ' He went to market, but did not find what he wanted '.

When the conjunction is omitted between two co-ordinate sentences, they must be separated by a comma if short, and by a semicolon if long and complicated. ' He came, he saw, he conquered.' When such sentences (sometimes called collateral) are contracted, the remaining portions are still divided by commas : ' Early to bed and early to rise, makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise ' ; or ' healthy, wealthy, wise '. ' *Peter, James, Thomas,* and *Mary* formed the party.'

These rules are all pervaded by one general principle, namely, that when words are closely connected in grammar or in sense they must not be separated in the pointing ;* but if an interruption takes place, or a transition is made, a point is necessary. An expression enclosed between commas is in some sort parenthetical ; there would be no break in the grammatical connexion, or in the sense, if it were passed over.

The Semicolon and the Colon.

The Semicolon is introduced when a greater pause is required than what is usually indicated by the comma.

In the construction of sentences, or periods, we may have some clauses more closely connected than others, and the degree of connection may be suggested by the absence of a stop, by a comma, or by the semicolon : ' Children without any design imitate the language, the tone, the pronunciation, the looks, the gestures, the gait of those with whom they live ; and if the imitation be continued sufficiently long, no efforts in after life can overcome the effects of it, the flexibility or docility, so to speak, of the tissues or organs concerned seeming to diminish rapidly with the approach to maturity, or the cessation of growth '. Here it is felt that the break or pause is much greater after ' they live ', than at the end of the various words

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* The only exception to this is Rule 1 (simple sentence) ; but that is justified on the ground that the inordinate length of the subject renders a pause desirable.

where commas are used. There is also a considerable break in the sense after 'can overcome the effects of it', where also there would have been no impropriety in placing another semicolon.

When a pause is not sufficiently marked by the semicolon, the **colon** may be used at the writer's discretion. But no fixed rules can be laid down respecting the use of this stop. One application of it is to introduce a quotation, a narrative, an argument, or an enumeration of particulars : 'He spoke as follows' :—

The Period or Full Stop.

This stop is used **at the close of a complete sentence.**

The rules for the use of it are the rules for the composition of periods and paragraphs. The most usual error is to include in one period the matter that should be divided into two, or perhaps more.

The full stop is used *after abbreviations :* ' MS. ', ' LL.D. ', ' Lond. ', ' Mr. ', ' Esq. ', ' Bart.'.

The note of **interrogation** must not be used after *indirect* questions ; as ' he asked me who called '.

The **parentheses** enclose some remark that does not enter into the construction of the sentence :

> ' The bliss of man (could pride that blessing find)
> Is not to act or think beyond mankind.'

The **dash** marks an unexpected or emphatic pause, or a sudden break or transition : ' Why, perhaps it is—but what was his intention ? '

Sometimes it is used to mark words in apposition, or in explanation :

> ' They plucked the seated hills, with all their load—
> Rocks, waters, woods—and by the shaggy tops
> Uplifting, bore them in their hands.'

Two dashes may be used to enclose an explanatory parenthetic clause ; ' In truth, the character of the great chief was depicted two thousand five hundred years before his birth, and depicted—such is the power of genius—in colours which will be fresh as many years after his death '.

Inverted commas are used to mark quotations.

The note of **exclamation** or **admiration** is used after interjections and passionate exclamations, or after any passages that are intended to be especially emphatic : ' A dread eternity ! how surely mine ! '

PARSING.

The various parts of every sentence may be examined in **five different modes.**

In giving a complete account of a sentence, we might parse it *five* times, for as many different purposes. We might state first *the part of speech* of each word ; secondly, *the inflexion* of every inflected word ; thirdly, *the derivation* of each word ; fourthly, *the analysis of the sentence* ; and fifthly, *the application of the syntactical rules* of concord, government, and order to the sentence. But there being very little to do under the second head—inflexion, we may conveniently join that with the first. Also, the analysis and the other parts of syntax are so closely allied, that we may take the whole under one parsing. (The analysis might also be easily included in the first mode of parsing.) There will thus be three distinct parsings applicable to any one passage.

I. Parsing for Parts of Speech (including Inflexion.)

Under this we state the Part of Speech of each word (whether Noun, Pronoun, &c.), showing how it comes under the Definition ; also the class or subdivision that the word belongs to ; and the inflexional changes it exhibits.

It is necessary even for this limited purpose to understand the syntax of the sentence, for we must often treat a phrase of two or more words as grammatically one. Moreover, we must determine the part of speech according to the actual function of the word in each case ; seeing that the same word falls under different parts of speech at different times. We shall take as an example the following passage from Milton :—

> ' Far less abhorred than these
> Vex'd Scylla, bathing in the sea that parts
> Calabria from the hoarse Trinacrian shore.'

' Far ' ; an adv. of degree, modifying ' less '.

' Less ' ; adv. of degree, comparative, modifying ' abhorred '. Not in usual compar. form, the -*r* ending being assimilated to the final consonant of the positive (*lœs*).

' Abhorred ' : adj. of quality (derived from past participle of verb ' abhor ') ; limits ' hell-bounds ', understood.

' Than ' : adv. of degree, comparative, modifying a verb understood ' were abhorred ', the completion of the clause commencing with ' these '. (The whole clause—' than these

(hell-hounds) were abhorred'—is equivalent to an adv. of degree, modifying 'less'.)

'These': adj., pronominal, demonstrative; plural; limits 'hell-hounds', understood.   Or, pronoun, demonstr.; plur.; having for its antecedent (or pointing to) 'hell-hounds'.

'Vex'd': verb transitive; active voice, indicative mood, past indefinite tense, third person, plural number; subject, 'hell-hounds', understood after 'abhorred'.

'Scylla': noun, proper, singular, meaningless; or simply proper)*; feminine; the object of the verb 'vexed'.

'Bathing': verb, intransitive; (imperfect or incomplete) participle; subject, 'Scylla'; co-ordinating use.

'In': preposition, place, rest in; placed before 'sea' to mark the relation between 'sea' and 'Scylla bathing' (or joined with 'sea' to make up an advl. phrase modifying 'bathing'.)

'The': adj., pronoml., demonstr., (usually called the definite article); limits 'sea'. (The complete limitation is given by the expression—'that parts . . . shore'—adj. clause restrictive.)

'Sea': noun, general and significant (or simply general, or common),* connected with 'bathing' by 'in' (or taken with 'in' to make up a phr.—as above.)

'That': pron. relative, restrictive; antecedent 'sea'; subject to the verb 'parts'.

'Parts': verb, transitive, predicate to 'that'; act. voice, indic. mood, pres. indef. tense, sing. number, 3rd person.

'Calabria': noun, proper;* object to 'parts'.

'From': preposition (one of the case prepositions), place, motion with direction; placed before 'shore' to mark the relation between 'shore' and 'parts' (or joined with 'shore' to to make up an advl. phr. of place, motion with direction, modifying 'parts').

'The' (as above); limits 'shore'.

'Hoarse': adj. of quality; qualifies 'shore'.   Co-ordinating.

'Trinacrian': adj. derived from a proper name; limits 'shore'.

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* It would be too much trouble to keep up the full distinctions on all occasions, and I should therefore propose that when a noun is a proper (or *meaningless*) name, and also the name of *one* object, it should simply be called 'proper'; as the names that are proper and *not* singular are the exception, and may be noted when they occur. The significant nouns are nearly all 'general', and might be parsed as 'general', (or if preferred 'common'), and therefore 'general' or 'common' might be held to mean 'general and significant', unless the contrary be stated. The parsing of nouns would thus continue as at present, except that when such a word as the 'Browns' or the 'Jameses' occurred, it should be stated as 'proper and common'; and when 'Providence' or 'the emperor' occurred, it would be stated as 'singular and significant'.

'Shore': noun, general (or common);* taken with 'from'. (The combination 'the Trinacrian shore' constitutes a singular name, partly significant and partly proper.)

II. Parsing for Derivation. This consists of *two* parts; first, assigning the source of each word, as 'Native', 'French', &c.; and secondly, giving account of its composition when it is a compound word.

The rules and lists given under DERIVATION—*Sources of Words*, together with the lists given in the Appendix, are intended to afford the means of determining the etymological origin of all our words. The rules to be absolutely relied on are those in sections 28, 29, 32, 33. It is to be seen first whether a word belongs to the parts of speech, &c., that are of home origin (28, 29). If this is not decisive, the rules relating to the number of syllables (32, 33) are to be referred to, together with the lists of exceptions.

The pupil should gradually master all the smaller lists of the languages given in the text—Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Arabic, &c. He should also master the native words of more than one syllable, of which a tolerably complete enumeration is given in the account of the things named from native sources; in which account the examples are purposely drawn from dissyllable words. When a word of more than one syllable occurs, it should be stripped of any known prefix or ending, and reduced to its simplest form; as 'foot-step', 'mis-behave', 'under-go', 'out-strip', 'with-draw', 'faith-ful'. It is the uncompounded form that we are to deal with according to the rules (32, 33.) The question will then be decided by a reference to the lists in the Appendix. The first of these lists—the Celtic, might be readily mastered; the Scandinavian list is somewhat longer, but if the pupil were familiar with it likewise, the actual reference would be confined to two lists—the other Teutonic words and the list of classical monosyllables. A key is thereby furnished to the sources of the language, upon a plan preferable to the use of the dictionary, as it deals with classes and not with individuals, and renders it possible ultimately to master the entire language.

The rules drawn from the endings and prefixes (30, 31) are very useful for giving the probable origin of words at the first glance; but in consequence of the great number of hybrids, of which no complete list has been made, they are not the rules that are depended on. In distinguishing between a Latinized and an English style generally, they are a tolerably safe guide.

If pupils have been disciplined in Latin, Greek, and Saxon roots, or if they have made some progress in Latin and Greek, or in French, they will have an additional means of discrimina-

ting the sources of our vocabulary ; and the teacher will then appeal to this part of their knowledge in parsing for derivation.

The other exercise under Derivation consists in reducing words that are not simple to their simple elements. Thus 'greatness' is made up of the adjective 'great' and the suffix 'ness'; 'embitter' is the adjective 'bitter' combined with the prefix 'em', which is employed to convert adjectives into verbs, with the meaning of 'to make'; 'powder-horn' is a compound word made up of two nouns.

III. **Parsing for Syntax.** The analysis of sentences has been sufficiently exemplified. There remains only the illustration of the rules of Concord, Government, and Order, as given under those several heads. Numerous examples of detailed parsing for Syntax are given in the *Key to First English Grammar*, pp. 157-186.

<center>EXAMPLES OF ERRORS,</center>

<center>AND OF INFERIOR, AMBIGUOUS, OR PECULIAR FORMS.</center>

<center>*(The arrangement is designedly made promiscuous.)*</center>

The separation did not take place till after the language had attained the ripeness of maturity.

The Church has, through its Committee on Education, in their last report, recommended a more liberal endowment, so that we have now reason to count upon their cordial co-operation.

What is the reason that our language is less refined than those of Italy, Spain, or France?

Prompted by the most extreme vanity, he persisted in the writing bad verses.

By letters, dated the third of May, we learn that the West India fleet arrived safely.

If I want skill or force to restrain the beast that I ride upon, though I bought it and call it my own ; yet, in the truth of the matter, I am at that time rather his man than he my horse.

This great philosopher, with whom I am always unwilling to differ, refers, &c.

It is not so unwieldy as to make it necessary to have recourse to the complex mechanism of double elections.

A history now by a Mr. Hume, or a poem by a Mr. Pope, would be examined with different eyes than had they borne any other name.

One species of bread, of coarse quality, was only allowed to be baked.

The party whom he invited was very numerous.

The Duke of Manchester died at Rome on the 18th of March, 1843. His grace in 1793 married the daughter of the late Duke of Gordon, and was 71 years of age.

There is not a girl in town, but let her have her will, in going to a mask. and she shall dress like a shepherdess.

It is now about four hundred years since the art of multiplying books has been discovered.

An officer on European and on Indian service are in very different situations.

For I remember that among your ancient authors, not only all kings, but even Jupiter himself is so termed.

My old friend, after having seated himself, and trimmed the boat with his coachman, who, being a very sober man, always serves for ballast on these occasions, we made the best of our way to Fox-hall.

Man never is, but always to be blest.

Indeed, were we to judge of German reading habits from these volumes of ours, we should draw quite a different conclusion to Paul's.

I know no duty in religion more generally agreed on, nor more justly required by God.

The doctor, in his lecture, said that fever always produced thirst.

Alarmed by so unusual an occurrence, it was resolved to postpone their departure.

The *Annals of Florence* are a most imposing work.

Without having attended to this, we will be at   loss in understanding several passages in the classics.

They have no other standard on which to form themselves, except what chances to be fashionable.

The Earl of Huntly, conformable to the crafty policy which distinguishes his character, amused the leaders of the congregation.

Luxuriance of ornament and the fondness for point are certain indications of the decline of good taste.

Such expressions sound harshly.

To engage a private tutor for a single pupil, is, perhaps of all others, the least eligible mode of giving literary instruction.

In every ward one of the king's council took every man's book, and sealed them, and brought them to Guildhall to confront them with the original.

This diffused a secret joy through the whole assembly, which showed itself in every look and feature.

They introduced the taste of science and religion which distinguished Medina as the city of the book.

What can be the cause of the parliament neglecting so important a business?

Hobbes is probably the first of whom we can say he is a good English writer.

The atrocious crime of being a young man, I shall neither attempt to palliate nor deny.

The Royal Family takes rank before the Peers of the realm.

Politics are too strong for the schools and give them their bias.

Either you or I are in the wrong.

You seem neither to care for yourself nor for any one else after what you have lost.

On either side of the river was there the tree of life.

If a stranger should hear these furious outcries of ingratitude against our general, he would be apt to inquire.

I have lost the game, though I thought I should have won it.

Let the elders that rule well be counted worthy of double honour, especially they who labour in the word and doctrine.

He would not be persuaded but what I was greatly in fault.

I do not think that leisure of life and tranquillity of mind, which fortune and your own wisdom has given you, could be better employed.

It is a long time since I have been devoted to your interest.

Give me it.

This haughty and imperious style sounded harshly to Scottish nobles, impatient of the slightest appearance of injury.

The family with whom I have long lived in intimacy is gone to the country.

That is seldom or ever the case.

The fact of me being a stranger to him does not justify his conduct.

It is one of the most satisfactory and valuable emendations which has ever been made.

Accordingly on their approaching they were refused admittance within, and were violently and unceremoniously driven from the gates.

Much depends on this rule being observed.

The salt-merchants, the grocers, the confectioners conspired together to adulterate the articles in which they dealt in a thousand ways.

Let you and I go together.

The seeming importance given to every part of female dress, each of, which is committed to the care of a different sylph, &c.

It is more good to fall among crows than flatterers, for these only devour the dead, those the living.

Let me awake the king of Morven, he that smiles in danger, he that is like the sun of Heaven rising in a storm.

But I will doubtless find some English person at whom to make inquiries.

The Romans had no other subsistence but the scanty pillage of a few farms.

There are few words in the English language which are employed in a more loose and uncircumscribed sense than those of the fancy and the imagination.

The light must not be suffered to conceal from us the real standard, by which only his greatness can be determined.

We were no sooner come to the Temple stairs but we were surrounded with a crowd of watermen.

The inattention to altered circumstances is a fault of most universal application in all political questions.

This is a question which we ought to have expected to have found answered in the 'Seventh Report of the Commissioners of Her Majesty's Inland Revenue'.

Not only England, but all Europe was in a blaze.

At present the trade is thought to be in a depressed state if less than a million of tons are produced in a year.

We are now poor, and wisdom bids us to conform to our humble situation.

'Tis resolved; for nature pleads that he should only rule who most resembles me.

I could heartily wish there was the same application and endeavours to cultivate and improve church music, as have been lately bestowed on that of the stage.

Men were no sooner settled in their rights to their possessions, but there was a third order proclaimed.

If we look within the rough and awkward outside, we will be richly rewarded by its perusal.

In constructing and depicting of characters, Werner indeed is little better than a mannerist.

He has eaten no bread nor drunk no water these two days.

But they kept off other evils which would have been worse.

Just to thy word, in every thought sincere;
Who knew no wish but what the world might hear.

The last year or two have been a time of great political pressure in Prussia.

Opinions are apt to be identified with set forms of language, which to disturb seems to destroy the opinions.

He frankly confessed that the state of the reserves were not satisfactory.

Before Hell's gates there sat on either side a formidable shape.

They who opulence has made proud, and who luxury has corrupted, cannot relish the simple pleasures of nature.

Either the young man or his guardians has acted improperly.

None, I am sure, can be of more honour to God, nor of more ease to ourselves.

In the Latin language, there are no two words we would more readily take to be synonymous than *amare* and *diigere*.

I have frequently been assured by great ministers that politics were nothing but common sense.

I had several men died in my ship of yellow fever.

He is an author of more credit than ——, or any other, that write lives so hastily.

He or you are in the wrong.

During the last century no prime minister, however powerful, has become rich in office.

The following treatise, together with those that accompany it, were written many years ago, for my own private satisfaction.

The person who immediately walked before him, was remarkable for an embroidered garment, who not being well acquainted with the place, was conducting him to an apartment appointed for the reception of fabulous heroes.

He addressed several exhortations to them suitably to their circumstances.

When the Emperor Alexander elevated the standard of the cross, he invoked the only power that ever has, or ever will, arrest the march of temporal revolution.

I do not question but they have done what is usually called the king's business.

Can parliament be so dead to its dignity and duty as to give their support to measures thus intruded and forced upon them?

The duke had not behaved with that loyalty, as he ought to have done.

He that can doubt whether he be anything or no, I speak not to.

A talent of this kind would, perhaps, prove the likeliest of any other to succeed.

The ends of a divine and human legislator are vastly different.

Be not too tame neither.

The ancestors of the human race knew poverty in a partial degree.

He was scarce gone, when you arrived.

I would feel myself blighted in the eyes of all my acquaintance, I would be overpowered by the feelings of my own disgrace.

They entreated to read to me, and bade me not to cry, for I was now too old to weep.

He need not proceed in such haste.

On your conduct at this moment depends the colour and complexion of their destiny.

One day, being brought before the king, and being asked whom he was, Diogenes replied, ' A spy on your cupidity '.

I, that did never weep, now melt in woe.

I must confess, after having surveyed the antiquities about Naples and Rome, I cannot but think that our admiration of them does not so much arise out of their greatness as uncommonness.

Reconciliation was offered on conditions as moderate as was consistent with a permanent union.

I have never seen Major Cartwright, much less enjoy the honour of his acquaintance.

Sailing up the river, the whole town may be seen.

The masterly boldness and precision of his outline, which astonish those who have trodden parts of the same field, is apt to escape an uninformed reader.

It makes us to walk warily.

Neither the houses nor the garden were sold.

I should be obliged to him, if he will gratify me in that particular.

The next New Year's day, I shall be at school three years.

But there is a general correctness of delineation which must strike the eye at once of any person slightly experienced in geography.

Both of the scholars, or one of them at least, were present at the transaction.

That is either a man or a woman's voice.

Scarce had the *Spirit of Laws* made its appearance than it was attacked.

He comes ; nor want nor cold his course delay.

He lived to see almost all the great principles which he had advocated not merely recognised, but a commencement made in carrying them into practice.

The rogue and fool by fits is fair and wise.

In these rigid opinions the whole sectaries, amidst all their other differences, unanimously concurred.

There are certain things that not only can not be done by force, but the employment of force is the surest way to prevent them.

Every one thought to have his special views attended to.

I think the longest times of our worst princes scarce saw many more executions than the short one of our best reformer.

It was great in him promoting one to whom he had done some wrong.

If you were here, you would find three or four in the parlour, after dinner, whom you would say, passed their afternoons very agreeably.

Whatever would prove prejudicial to our future prosperity, however enticing it may seem at present, we must resolutely reject it.

Great numbers were killed on either side.

They here began to breathe a delicious kind of ether, and saw all the fields about them covered with a kind of purple light, that made them reflect with satisfaction on their past toils.

Hence he considered marriage with a modern political economist, as very dangerous.

Olympus with its multitude of stately, celestial natures, dwindle before the solitary, immutable throne of Jehovah.

Mr. Broadhurst is a very good sort of man, who has not written a very bad book on a very important subject.

That opinion is too universal to be easily corrected.

The temper, as well as knowledge, of a modern historian, require a more sober and accurate language.

Wherever the giant came, all fell before him ; but the dwarf had like to have been killed more than once.

Man, though he has great variety of thoughts, yet they are all within his own breast.

Not only he found her busy, but pleased and happy even.

This is wonderful ridiculous from so solid an orator.

In reality more than one principle has been contended for at one time.

The first thing impressed on us from our earliest infancy is that events do not succeed one another at random, but with a certain degree of order regularity. and connexion.

He thinks that He will soon return.

The ebb and flow of the tides were explained by Newton.

This does not so much seem to be owing to the want of physical powers, but rather to the absence of vehemence.

Animal spirits such as belong to some men are a fortune in themselves.

The wealth of the great Audley may be considered as the cloudy medium through which a bright genius shone, and which, had it been thrown into a nobler sphere of action, the greatness would have been less ambiguous.

We cannot all be masters, nor all masters cannot be truly followed.

The accuracy and clearness of the sentence depend very much upon the proper and determinate use of the relative, so that it may readily present its antecedent to the mind, without any obscurity or ambiguity.

Hoping that I will soon hear from you, believe me yours truly.

You may infuse the sentiment by a ray of light, no thicker, nor one thousandth part so thick, as the finest needle.

Some persons can only distinguish black, white, and grey.

Domestic society is the seminary of social affections, where the first elements are acquired of that tenderness and humanity which cement mankind together; and which, were they entirely extinguished, the whole fabric of social institutions would be dissolved.

We would be greatly mistaken if we suppose wealth and rank exempt from care and toil.

If I am not mistaken, a government can only be called democratic where a majority of adults are sovereign.

Some persons go the length of saying that nobody ought to be made to do what he dislikes.

How far I shall be found to possess the most essential attribute of Poetry, I know not.

He always preferred having his own views sustained by the failure of his opponent's arguments than by the success of his own.

The articles may be in prose or verse.

There is no other method of teaching that of which any one is ignorant, but by means of something already known.

Persons have been known to take a fever after feeling the smell of an open drain.

Suppose that, as a punishment, a man is condemned to put his finger after two days into the flame of a candle.

Two substantives, when they come together, and do not signify the same thing, the former must be in the genitive case.

APPENDIX.

I.—CELTIC WORDS.

(*W. Welsh, G. Gaelic, I. Irish.*)

[The asterisk signifies that the word is not confined to the dialect specified.]

Alpine. G.
Bachelor. W.
Bag. G.
Bald. G.
Balderdash. W.
Bard. W.
Barrack. G.
Basket. W.
Bastard. W.
Batten. G.
Bauble. G.
Bay-tree. W.
Beast. G.
Beg. G.
Bog. G.
Boggle. W.
Boisterous. W.
Bole. W.
Bonfire. W.
Booth. G.
Bother. I.
Bott. G.
Bourn. G.
Bragget. W.
Brake. G. (*a bit for horses.*)
Bran. W.*
Brand. G.
Buck. G.
Bug. W. (*a ghost.*)
Burn. (*n.*) G.
Buss. G. (*a kiss.*)
Button. G.*
Cabin. W.
Calf (*of the leg.*) G.
Cant. G.

Card. G.
Clan. W.
Clog. G.
Cloy. G.
Club. W.
Cockle. G.
Coil. G.
Coke. G.
Combe. W.
Coot. W.
Crag. G.
Crockery. W.*
Crone. G. (*an old woman.*)
Crowder. W.
Crown. W.
Cuddle. W.
Curd. W.
Cut. W.
Dad. W.
Dainty. W.
Dale.—Dell. W.*
Dandruff. W.
Darnock.—Dannock. G.
Decant. G.
Flannel. W.
Flummery. W.
Frith. G. (*muirland.*)
Geck. G. (*to toss up the head.*)
Gown. W.
Grid-iron. W.
Gruel. W.
Gyves. W.

Harlot. W.
Havock. W.
Hilding. W.
Hog. W.
Hover. W.
Ingle. G.
Jerk. W.
Jolt. W.
Kecks.—Kecksy. W.
Kid. W. (*a brush faggot*).
Kiln. W.
Lick. W. (*to beat.*)
Loop. G.
Marigold. W.*
Mine. G.
Minnow. G.
Murle. W.
Noggin. G.
Pall. (*v.*) W.
Pall. (*n.*) W.
Pallet. G.
Paw. W.
Peel. W. (*a small fortress.*)
Pellet. W.
Perk.—Pert. W.
Piggin. G.
Pike. Bret. (*fish*).
Pikelet. W.
Pin. W.
Plait.—Pleat. W.
Plaid. G.
Plea. W.

Plight. W.
Pour. W.
Pumpkin. W.
Put. W.
Quip. W.
Rasher. Cel.
Sham. W.
Size. W. (?) (*glue*).
Slab. W.
Soggy. W.
Solder. W.
Spree.
Suet. W.
Tabard. W.
Tackle. W.
Tall. W.
Tanist. G.
Tankard. G.
Tarry. W.
Tether. W.
Tingle. W.
Toll. W.
Toss. W.
Tuck. W.
Wabble. W.
Waist. W.
Wanton. W.
Welf. W.
Whiff. W
Whim. W.
Whisky. I.
Wimble. W.
Whip. W.
Wicket. W.
Wire.

II.—SCANDINAVIAN WORDS.

(I. Icelandic, D. Danish, N. Norwegian, S. Swedish.)

Arch. I. *sly.*
Awk.—Awkward. I.
Backgammon. D.
Ballast. D.
Bark. I.
Bark. I. (*of a tree.*)
Bask. I.
Beck. I. *a brook.*
Beer. D. (*a pillow.*)
Big. I.
Bilberry. D.
Bloat.—Bloated. —Bloater. S.
Blond. I.*
Blunderbuss. S.
Bound.—Bown. I.
Box. D. (*v.*)
Bulk. I. (*as in bulkheads.*)
Bunch.—Bunk. —Bung. I.
Bush.—Busk. I.
Busk. I. (*v.*)
Bustle. I.
Cackle.—Gaggle. S.*
Cade. I. (*as a cade lamb.*)
Cake. S.
Call. I.
Cast. I. (*v.*)
Chamm.— Champ. I.
Champion. I.
Chuckle. I.
Clear. I.
Clump. I.
Clumsy. I.
Cod. I. (*a husk.*)
Cock. D. (*a boat.*)
Collow.—Colly. I. *soot.*
Cope. I. (*v.*)
Cow. D. (*v.*)
Crank. S. (*a.*) (*nautical.*)
Crinkle. D.
Cripple. I.
Cross. I.*
Crouch. I.
Cub. I.

Cucking-Stool. I.
Culm. I.
Dairy.— Doy. S.
Dale.—Dell. I.*
Dangle. S.*
Dewlap. D.
Dilling.—Dill. I.
Dog. I.
Doggrel. I.
Dor. I. (*v.*)* (*to befool.*)
Dowdy. I.
Draggle. S.
Drake. S.
Drazel.—Drossel. D.
Dredge.—Drizzle D.
Drivel. D. and I.
Drub. I.
Dug. S.
Dunch. D. (*to thump.*)
Dusky. S.
Ferly. I. (*wonder.*)
Fettle. I.
Filly. N.
Flit. D.
Flizz. S.
Flounce. S. (*v.*)
Flounder. S.
Flume. N.
Fluster. I.
Fog. D. *mist.*
Fond. I.
Forse. I. (*a waterfall.*)
Freak. I. *a man.*
Freckle. I.
Frith.—Firth. I.
Froth. I.
Gaby. D. (*a simpleton.*)
Gag-tooth. I.
Gain.—Gainly. I.
Gale. I. (*v.*)
Gale. N. (*n.*)
Galley. I.
Gammon. D. (*an exclamation.*)
Gar. I.
Gauntlet. S.
Gat-toothed. S.
Gill. S. (*of a fish.*)

Gizen. N.
Glare. N.
Glamour. I.
Glede. I. (*a live coal.*)
Glidder. D. (*slippery.*)
Glop.—Gloppen. I.
Glout.—Gloat. S.
Gnash. D.
Grains. D.
The Grains. D. (*a harpoon.*)
Groin. D.
Grow.—D (*to be troubled.*)
Grovel. I.
Gull. D. *a dupe.*
Gust. I.
Haberdasher. I.
Haggle. I.
Halse. I. *to salute.*
Hamble.—Hammel. I. (*to lame*)
Harrow. D.
Haze.—Hazle.—N.
Hit. I.
Hoggins. I.
Hoity-toity. S.
Housel. I.
Hugger-mugger. S.
Hull. N. (*v.*) (*to coax.*)
Inkling. I.
Jeer. I.
Jolly-boat. D.
Kedge. I. (1) *an anchor;* (2) *brisk.*
Kedge-belly. I.
Keelson.—Kelson. D.
Keg. N.
Kelter. S. (*ready.*)
Kenspeckle. N.
Kickle.—Kittle. N.
Kid. I. *a young goat.*
Kid. I. *as in kidnap.*
Kilt. S.

Kindle. I. *to set fire to.*
Kitten.—Kitling —Kittle. N.
Lam. I. (*v.*) *to beat.*
Lawn. N.
Leam. I. (*gleam*).
Leg. I.
Levin. N. (*lightning.*)
Ling. I. (*a kind of heath.*)
Link. I. (1) *a sausage;* (2) *a joint of a chain.*
Linstock. S.
Loover. I.* (*a chimney.*)
Lout. I. (*v.*)
Low. I. (*flame.*)
Lurch.—Lurk. N
Mane. I.
Mare. I. (*as nightmare.*)
Marram. I.
Marrow. I.
Maul. I. (*v.*)
Mermaid. (I.)
Midden. I.
Mire. I.
Mitten. I.
Morkin. I. *carrion.*
Mort. I. *a great quantity.*
Moskered. I. *decayed.*
Muck. N. (*dung.*)
Mulled *ale.* I.
Nagging.—Naggy. N.
Narwhal. I. (*the sea-unicorn.*)
Neive. I.
Niggard. N.
Nightingale. I.
Nithing. I. (*a vile fellow.*)
Oaf. I. *a simpleton.*
Odd. N.
Pawn. I.*
Peal. I.

Pedigree. I.
Peevish. D.
Pet. S. *a fit of displeasure.*
Pippin. — Pip. D.
Pod. D.
Prog. N. (*n.* and *v.*)
Pug-*mill.* D.
Pulse. D. *a sausage.*
Rake. D. *a vicious man.*
Ransack. S.
Rate. S. *to chide.*
Root. S.
Rove. D.
Scald.—Scalder D.
Scant. I.
Scare. I.
Score. I.

Screak. S.
Scrip. S.
Scull. I. (*a small boat.*)
Scat. I. (*a short tail.*)
Shirt. D.
Shriek. S.
Shrill. S.
Silt. S. *mud, slime.*
Skew. D.
Skip. I.
Skit. I.
Skirt. D.
Skull. I.
Sky. S.
Slag. D.
Slake. I.
Slant. S.
Slash. I.
Sleave. I.

Slot. I. (*the track of a deer.*)
Slug. D.
Smatter. D.
Smicker. S.
Smile. S.
Smug. D. (*neat.*)
Snare. I.
Sneap.—Snub. D.
Snudge. D.
Snug. D.
Spirt. S.
Spoon. I.
Sprain. S.
Sprawl. D.
Spud. D.
Squall. S.
Squeak. S.
Squeal. S.
Stack. D.
Staff. I. *a stanza.*
Stumble. I.

Stump. D.
Swig. I.
Switch. S.
Tag.
Tang.—Tangle, S.
Tarn. I.
Thrive. D.
Thrum. I.
Thurs-*day.* D.
Tramp. S.
Trap. S.
Trigger. D.
Wail. I.
Warlock. I.
Weld. S.
Whim. I.
Whirl. I.
Wicker. D.
Window. D.
Wing. S.
Wisp. S.

III.—OTHER TEUTONIC WORDS.

(*D. Dutch, G. German, F. Flemish.*)

Average. G.
Awning. G.
Bad. G.
Badge. G.
Bamboozle. D.
Bast.—Bass. D.
Begone.— *Woe-begone.* D.
Belong. D.
Bent. G. *rushes.*
Bill. D.
Blear. G.
Blight. G.
Block. D.
Bluff. D.
Blunder. D.
Boast. G.
Boom. D. (*n & v.*)
Boor. D.
Botch. D. (*n. & v.*)
Boult — Bolt. G. (*v.*)
Bounce. D.
Boy. G.
Brabble. D.
Brack.—Brackish G.
Brandy. G.
Brattice.—Bartisan. G.
Buckwheat. G.
Buff. D. *dull of colours,* &c.

Bull. G. *animal.*
Bully.—Bully-rook. D.
Bulwark. D.
Bum. — Boom. — Bump. D.
Bum-*bailiff.* D.
Bumpkin. G.*
Buoy. D.
Buskin. D.*
Bush.—Bushel. D.
Buss. D. *a vessel.*
Butter.— Butter-fly. D.
Buttock. D.
Carouse. D.
Catkin. D.
Caterpillar. D.
Chaff. D. (*v.*)
Chaffer. G. (*v.*)
Chaldern.--Chaw-dron. G.
Chap. — Chip. — Chop. D.
Charcoal. D.
Chimb. D. *rim of a vase.*
Chink-Cough. — Chin-cough. D.
Chitter. D.
Chitterling. D.
Chub. G.

Clamber. G.
Clamp. — Clump. D.
Clang.--Clank. G.
Clash. D.
Clatter. D.
Click.—Clicket. D.
Clench.—Clinch. D.
Closhe. D.
Cloud. D.
Cobalt. G.
Cockle. D. (*v.*)
Cocker. D.
Codger. D.
Comber. D.
Coomb. D.
Copes - man, or -mate.— D.
Cotquean.—Quot-quean. D.
Cough. G.
Cower. G.
Cramp. D.
Crank. D.
Craunch. D.
Craw. G. *the neck,* &c.
Crawl. D.
Creek. D. *a brook.*
Crewel. G.

Cricket. D. *an insect.*
Crone. D. *an old sheep.*
Cruise. D.
Cudgel. D.
Cur. D.
Curl. D.
Cumber. D.
Damp. G. (*n. & v.*)
Dandle. D.
Dank. G.
Dapper. D.
Dare. G. *to be terrified.*
Daunt. D.
Decoy. D.
Deuce— Dickens. G.
Dew-*berry.* G.
Didapper. D. *a water bird.*
Dock. G. (1) *a bundle;* (2) *a sluice.*
Dolley. D.
Doit. D.
Dole. G. *a slip of pasture.*
Doll. D.
Dollar. D.
Dot. D.
Dote. D.

Dotterel. D.
Down. G. *as thistle-down.*
Drabble. D.
Dragoon. D.
Drake. — Drawk. D.
Drape-*sheep.* D.
Drawl. D.
Dream. G. or D.
Dredge. D. *an anchor.*
Dretch. G.
Drill. G. *a kind of cloth.*
Drowsy. D.
Duck. D. (*v. & n.*)
Dumps. D.
Ember-*days.* G.
Etch. G.
Fade. D.
Felspar. G.
Fetlock. D.
Fey. G.
Filberd. G.
Fimble. D.
Fine. G.
Finical. — Finikin. D.
Fir. G.
Flaik. D.
Flail. G.
Fleech. G.
Flew. G. (1) *tender;* (2) *shallow.*
Flew-*net.* D.
Flews. G.
Flook. G.
Flunkey. G.
Flush. G. *immediate.*
Flutter. G.
Fob. G. (*v.*)
Fog. G. (*v.*)
Ford. D.
Forge on. D.
Fraught. G.
Furlough. D.
Gain. G. (*in composition.*)
Gallipot. D.
Garden. G.
Gas. D.
Gash. G. *to cut.*
Geck. D. *to sport, deride,* &c.
Gherkin. G.
Gibbet. D.
Girl. G.

Glance. D.
Glaver. D. (*v.*)
Glib. D.
Glimmer. G.
Goit. — Gote. D. — Gowt. D. *a sluice,* &c.
Gooseberry. D.
Graves. — Graving-*dock.* G.
Groat. G.
Groom. D.
Grout. D.
Grub. D. (*v.*)
Guess. D.
Guile. D.
Haberdine. D.
Hackbut. D.
Hale. — Haul. D.
Halibut. D.
Halloo. G.
Halm. — Hawm. G.
Halse. D. *to embrace.*
Halse. — Hawse. G. *the neck.*
Hamper. D.
Hank. G.
Hantle. G.
Hap. — Happy. — Happen. D.
Harsh. G.
Hatch. G. (*said of birds.*)
Hatch. D. *to fasten.*
Hackle. — Heckle. D.
Haunch. G.
Heyday. G.
Higler. — Higgle. D.
Hind-*berry.* D.
Hob. D.
Hobbedehoy. D.
Hocus - pocus. — Hoax. D.
Hoddipeak. D.
Hodge-podge. D.
Hoe. D.
Hog. — Hoggel. — Hoggrel. D.
Hogshead. D.
Hoyden. D.
Hoop. D.
Hop. G.
Howlet. D.
Hoy. D.
Huckle-*backed.* D.

Huckle-*bone.*
Huckster. G.
Hurst. D.
Husk. D.
Hustle. D.
Hut. D.
Ingot. G.
Interloper. D.
Isinglass. G.
Jerkin. D.
Jib. D. (*v.*)
Kaw. — Keck. D.
Kebbers. D.
Keel. — Kayle. D.
Kemlin. — Kemnel. D.
Kerb. G.
Kilderkin. D.
Kink. D. *a twist.*
Kit. D. (1) *a pail;* (2) *a brood.*
Knap. G. or D.
Knapsack. G. or D.
Lack. D. *want.*
Lane. D.
Landgrave. G.
Larboard. D.
Larrup. D.
Lash. D. *to bind.*
Lass. G.
Lath. G. or D.*
Lary. D.
Leaguer. D. *a lying,* &c.
Leaguer. G. *a small cask.*
Leak. D.
Leat. (*of a mill.*) G.
Ledger. D.
Leet. D. *a peasant tenant.*
Left. D.
Less. G. *termination.*
Lessel. G. *a portico.*
Lights. G.
Lime. G. *a lime-tree.*
Linen. G.
Line. G. (*v.*)
Ling. D. *a codfish.*
Link. D. *a torch.*
Litmus. D.
Loafer. D.
Lobby. G.
Log. D.

Loiter. D.
Lombard-*house.* D.
Loof. D.
Lop. G.
Loon. — Lown. D.
Loop-*hole.* D.
Loover. D.
Lour. G.
Lout. D.
Lukewarm. G.
Lusk. G. *a slug,* &c.
Mangle. G. (*n. & v.*)
Marl. D.
Mask. D.
Maulstick. G.
Mauther. D.
Mazer. G.
Mazzard. G.
Measles. D.
Mellow. G.
Menild. — Meanelled. G. *speckled.*
Mew. G.
Miff. G. *ill-humour.*
Mizzle. D. *to rain fine.*
Mob-*cap.* D.
Mole. — Mouldwarp. G.
Moor. D. (*v.*)
More. G. *root of a tree,* &c.
Moult. D.
Mud. G.
Muff. D. *a fool.*
Mug. D. *an earthen pot.*
Mulberry. G.
Mullock. D. *rubbish.*
Mum. G. *beer.*
Mumps. D.
Musty. G.
Nick. G. *Old Nick.*
Nick. G. *as in nick-name.*
Nickel. G.
Nozzle. G.
Nudge. G.
Oast. D. *a kiln.*
Offal. G.
Ogle. G. D. ?
Pack. G.
Palm. G. *tree.*
Pay. D. *to daub with pitch.*

Pea-*jacket*. D.
Peer. G. (*v.*)
Pet. D.
Pew. D.
Pickle. D.
Piddle. G.
Pig. D. (1) *animal*
  (2) *iron*.
Pinfold.—Pindar.
  D.
Pip. G.
Pismire. D. *the*
  ant.
Platform. D.
Plash. D.
Plight. O.
Plough. G.
Plug. D.
Ply. G.
Poll.—Pollard. D.
Porthole. G.
Frank. — Prance.
  G.
Prime. D. (*v.*)
Prim. D. (*v.*)
Prop D.
Pudgy. G.
Puke. G.
Punt. D.
Purblind. D.
Purl. D. (*v.*)
Quack. G.
Quartz. G.
Queer. G.
Quoit. D.
Rabbit. D.
Race. D.
Raff. G.
Rail. G. *an iron*
  bar.
Rail. D. *to mock*.
Ramble. D.
Rant. D.
Rash. D.
Rattle. D.
Rave. D.
Ravel. D.
Reef. D. (*nautical*
  term).
Reef. G. *a chain*
  of rocks.
Revel. D.
Riff-raff. G.
Rifle. G.
Rob. G.

Roe. G.
Rouse. G. *a bum-*
  per.
Rout. G.
Rub. G.
Rudder. G.
Ruffle. D.
Rumble. G.
Rummer. D. *a*
  large glass.
Rump. D.
Runt. D.
Rutter. D. *a*
  trooper.
Sable. G.
Sasse. D. *a sluice*.
Scallop. D.
Scalp. D.
Scamble. D.
Scamper D.
Schooner. D.
Scold. D.
Sconce. G.
Scoop. D.
Scowl. G.
Scrabble. D.
Scramble. D.
Scratch. G.
Screw. D.
Scrub. G.
Sculk. D.
Scum. G.
Seem. G.
Shalm.—Shawm.
  G. *a musical*
  pipe.
Shatter. D.
Shingle. G.
Shive. D. *a slice*.
Shore. D.
Shrimp. D.
Shudder. G.
Shy. G.
Simnel. G. *a cake*.
Skate. D. *ice shoe*.
Skellum. D.
Skiff. G.
Skim. G.
Skipper. D.
Slabber. G.
Slap. G.
Slatter. G.
Slave. G.
Slaver. G.
Sled.—Sledge. D.

Sleek. G.
Sleight. G.
Slender. D.
Slice. G.
Slight. G.
Slim. G.
Sloop. D.
Slottery. G.
  squalid.
Sloven. D.
Slubber. G.
Sluice. D.
Slur. D.
Slut. D.
Smalt. D.
Smelt. D. (*v.*)
Smuggle. G.
Snack. D.
Snaffle. D.
Snap. D.
Snarl. G.
Snast. G.
Snatch. D.
Sniff. D.
Snip. D.
Snipe. D.
Snort. D.
Snout. G.
Snub. D.
Snuff. D.
Sod. D.
Sop. D.
Souse. G.
Spang. G.
Spite. D.
Splice. D.
Splinter. D.
Split. D.
Sport. G. (?)
Spot. D.
Spout. D.
Sprat. D.
Squander. G.
Squint. D.
Stadholder. D.
Stagger. D.
Stamp. D.
Start. D.
Steep. G.
Stilt. D.
Stiver. D.
Stop. D.
Stout. D.
Strip. D.

Strive. D.
Strut. G.
Stubble. G.
Stuff. G.
Sturdy. D.
Stutter. G.
Sutler. D.
Swash. D.
Sway. D.
Swerve. D.
Swindle. D.
Tafferel. D.
Talc.- Talk. G. *a*
  mineral.
Tallow. G.
Tattle. D.
Teal. D.
Thrack. G. *to load*.
Tick. D. (*n. & v.*)
Tight. D.
Tip. D.
Touse. G. *to pull*.
Toy. D.
Trail. D.
Trifle. D.
Trip. D.
Troll. G. *to roll*.
Trollop. G.
Trull. G.
Tub. D.
Twinge. D.
Twirl. D.
Twist. D.
Twitter. D.
Uproar. D.
Vampire. G.
Vane. D.
Veneer. G.
Wad. D.
Wafer. D.
Wage. G.
Wainscot. D.
Waltz. G.
Wamble. D.
Wand. D.
Warble. G.
Wee. G.
Whelp. D.
Whimper. G.
Whisk. G.
Wreck. D.
Wriggle. D.
Yacht. D.
Zinc. G.

IV.—MONOSYLLABLES OF CLASSICAL ORIGIN.

(F. French, G. Greek, I. Italian, L. Latin, S. Spanish).

Ace. F.
Act. L.
Add. L.
Age. L.
Aim. F.
Air. L.
Aisle. F.
Alb. L.
Apse. L. G.
Apt. L.
Arc. L.
Arch. L.
Arch (chief). G.
Art. L.
Asp. L.
Aunt. L.
Bail. F.
Bale (bundle). F.
Bale (v.). F.
Ball (round body; dance). F.
Balm. F.
Bar. F.
Barb. F.
Barge. F.
Barque. F.
Base. F.
Band. F.
Bass. I.
Bay. F.
Beak. F.
Beau. F.
Beef. F.
Belle. F.
Bill (paper). F.
Bice, Bise. F.
Bile. L.
Blame. F.
Blanch. F.
Bland. L.
Blank. F.
Block. F.
Blonde. F.
Blouse. F.
Boil (v.). L.
Bomb. F.
Boon (adj.). L.
Boot (for feet). F.
Boss. F.
Bound. F. (to spring).
Bowl. F.
Box. F. (a shrub).
Brace. F.

Brach. F.
Bract. L.
Branch. F.
Brave. F.
Beam. F.
Breeze. F.
Breve. I.
Bribe. F.
Brick. F.
Brief. F.
Brisk. F.
Broach. F.
Broil. F.
Bronze. F. I.
Brooch. F.
Browse. F.
Bruit. F.
Brush. F. I.
Brusque. F.
Brute. F.
Budge. F.
Bulb. L.
Bull. L. (Pope's edict).
Bun. F.
Bur. F.
Burr. F.
Bust. F.
Butt. F. I.
Buzz. I.
Cade. L. a cask.
Cage. F.
Calk. L.
Call. L.
Calm. F.
Camp. L.
Can. (n.) L.
Cane. L.
'ant (talk affectedly). L.
Cant (tilt). F.
Cape. L. I.
Car. L.
Card. F.
Carp. F.
'arte. F.
Case. F.
Cash. F.
Cask. F. S
Catch. F. I.
Caul, cowl. I. L.
Cause. F.
Cave. F.
Cease. L.

Cede. L.
Cell. L.
Cent. F.
Cere. L.
Cess(pool). L.
Chafe. F.
Chain. L.
Chair. F.
Chaise. F.
Chance. F.
Change. F.
Chant. F.
Chape. S.
Char (burn). F.
Charge. F.
Charm. F.
Chart. L.
Chase. F.
Chasm. G.
Chaste. L.
Cheat. F.
Check. F.
Cheer. F.
Chief. F.
Chine. F.
Choir. F.
Chord. G.
Chrism. G.
Christ. G.
Chrome. G.
Chum. F. (?)
Chyle. G.
Chyme. G.
Cist. L.
Cives. F.
Clack. F.
Claim. L.
Clang. G.
Clause. F. L.
Clef. F.
Clime. L. G.
Clique. F.
Cloak. F.
Close. F. L.
Clove. S. F. L.
Clown. L.
Coach. F.
Coarse. L.
Coast. L.
Coat. F.
Cod(fish). L.
Code. L.
Coif. F.

Coil. F. L.
Coin. F.
Cone. F. L. G.
Cook. L.
Coop. L.
Copse. F. G.
Cord. G.
Core. L.
Cork. S.
Corps. F.
Corpse. F. L.
Cost. F. L.
Couch. F.
Count. F.
Course. L.
Coy. F. L.
Crab (windlass). S.
Crack. F.
Crape. F.
Crass. L.
Cratch. L.
Crate. I. L.
Craze. F.
Cream. F.
Creed. L.
Crest. L.
Crime. L.
Crisp. L.
Croak. L.
Cross. I. F. L.
Crown. F. L.
Crude. L.
Cruise. L.
Cruse. F.
Crush. F.
Crust. L.
Crutch. L.
Cry. F. L.
Crypt. I. G.
Cue. F.
Cube. F. L. G.
Cuff. F. L. G.
Cull. F. L.
Culm. L.
Cup. F. L.
Curb. F.
Cure. L.
Curt. L.
Cusp. L.
Cyst. G.
Dab. F.
Dace (fish). F.
Dam. F.
Dame. F.

Damn. F. L.
Dance. F.
Dart. F.
Date. F. L.
Daunt. F. L.
Dean. F. L.
Debt. L.
Deign. F. L.
Dense. L.
Derm. G.
Deuce. F.
Die. (noun) F. L.
Dine. F.
Dire. L.
Dirge. F. L.
Disc, dish. L. G.
Doge. I. L.
Doit. F. L.
Dole. L.
Dome. L. G.
Don. S. L.
Dose. F. G.
Doubt. F. L.
Douche. F. L.
Drab (cloth) F.
Drachm. G.
Dram. I. G.
Drape. F.
Dredge. F.
Dress. F. L.
Droll. F.
Drug. F.
Drupe. L. G.
Duct. L.
Due. F.
Duke. F. L.
Dupe. F.
Dure. L.
Ease. F.
Err. L.
Eyre. F. L.
Face. F. L.
Fact. L.
Fail. F. L.
Faint. F.
Fair (market) F. L.
Faith. F. L.
False. L.
Fame. L.
Fane. L.
Farce. F.
Fate. L.
Fault. F.
Faun. L.
Fawn (deer) F.
Fay. F.
Feast. F. L.
Feat. F. L.
Feign. F. L.

Fence. F.
Fend. L.
Feud (fief) L.
Fib. I. L.
Fief. F.
Fierce. F.
Fife. F.
Fig. L.
File. L.
Fine. F. showy.
Fine. L. a penalty.
Firm. L.
Fisc. L.
Fit (attack of pain) I.
Fit. F.
Fitch. L.
Fix. L.
Flail. F. L.
Flame. L.
Flank. F.
Flask. F.
Fleam. F. G.
Flotch. F.
Flock. L. a lock of wool.
Flog. L.
Floss. I. L.
Flounce. F. L.
Flour. F.
Flue. F. L.
Flute. F. I. L.
Flux. L.
Foil. F.
Foil. F. leaf.
Foist. F.
Font. L.
Fool. F.
Fop. I. L.
Force. L.
Forge. F.
Form. F.
Fort. F.
Fosse. L.
Found. L. in building.
Found. L. to cast.
Fount. L.
Fract. L.
Frail. F.
Frank. F.
Fraud. L.
Fray. F.
Freak. I.
Fret. F. interlacing bars, &c.
Fret. F. wire on musical instr.
Frieze. F.
Frill. F.

Fringe. F.
Frizz. F.
Frock. F.
Fround. L.
Front. L.
Frounce. F.
Fruit. L.
Fry. F. (cooking.)
Fry. F. spawn.
Fugue. F.
Fume. L.
Fund. L.
Fur. F.
Furl. F.
Fuse. L.
Fust. F.
Gage. F.
Gain, F.
Gall. F. (gall nut.)
Gall. F. to fret.
Gaol. F.
Garb. F.
Gaud. L.
Gauge. F.
Gauze. F.
Gay. F.
Gem. F. L.
Germ. L.
Gest. L.
Gig. F.
Gill. L. a measure.
Gimp. F.
Gist. F.
Gland. L.
Glave. L.
Glean. F.
Glebe. L.
Globe. L.
Gloss. L. G. comment.
Gluc. L.
Glume. L.
Glut. L.
Glmph. G.
Gnome. G.
Goal. F.
Gob. F.
Gorge. F. I. L.
Gouge. F.
Gourd. F.
Gout. F.
Grace. F. L.
Grade. L.
Grail. F.
Grain. L.
Grand. L.
Grange. F. L.
Grant. F.
Grape. F.

Grate. I. L. (noun)
Grate. F. (verb.)
Grave. F.
Grease. F.
Greaves. F.
Grebe. F.
Grief. F.
Grill. F.
Grime. I.
Gross. L.
Grot. F.
Group. F. I.
Grudge. F.
Grume. F.
Guard. F.
Guide. F.
Guise. F.
Gules. F.
Gulf. G.
Gum. F. L. G.
Gurge. L.
Gust. F. I. L. taste.
Gyre. G.
Hack. F. hackney.
Hash. F.
Hatch. F.
Haught. F.
Haunch. F.
Haunt. F.
Hawse. F.
Hearse. F.
Heir. F.
Herb. L.
Host. L. landlord.
Host. L. (Rom. Cath.)
Host. L. (army.)
Hour. G.
Hue. F. (Hue and Cry.)
Hulk. G.
Hymn. L. G.
Ides. L.
Ire. L.
Isle. F.
Jack. F.
Jade. S.
Jail. F.
Jamb. F.
Jaw. F.
Jay. F.
Jest. L.
Jet. G.
Jet. F.
Jig. F.
Join. L.
Joke. L.
Jot. G.
Joust. F.
Joy. F.

Judge. L.
Juice. F.
June. L.
Just. L.
Ketch. F.
Lace. F.
Lache. F.
Lamp. G.
Lance. L.
Lapse. L.
Lar. L.
Larch. L.
Lard. L.
Large. L.
Laud, L.
Lave. F.
Lawn (cloth). S.
Lax. L.
Lay. G. the laity.
Lay. F. a song.
League. F.
Lease. F.
Leash. F.
Lees. F.
Lens. L.
Liege. F.
Lieu. F.
Lime. F.
Limn. F.
Line. L. (noun.)
Link. G.
Lint. L.
List. F. I.
Loach. F.
Lobe. G.
Long. L. (adj.)
Lote. G.
Lounge. F.
Luce. L.
Luff. F.
Lurch. I.
Lure. F.
Lute. F.
Lymph. L.
Lynx. L.
Lyre. L.
Mace. L. a club.
Mace. L. a kind of spice.
Mail. F. armour.
Mail. F. a bag.
Male. F.
Mall. L.
Mange. F.
Map. L.
March. L. the month.
March. F.
Marque. F.
Mars. L.

Mask. F.
Mass. L. a heap
Mass. L. religious ceremony.
Match. F.
Mate. F.
Maund. F.
May. L. the month
Meal. F.
Mean. L. middle
Mere. J. L.
Merge. L.
Merle. L.
Mess. F.
Mew. F.
Mien. F.
Mime. G.
Mine. F.
Mix. L.*
Moat. F.
Mob. L.
Mock. F. G.
Mode. F.
Moil. F.
Moist. F.
Mole. L. a mound
Morne. F.
Mood. L. in grammar.
Moor. L. an African.
Mop. L.
Mosque. F.
Mount. F.
Move. L.
Mulct. L.
Mule. L.
Mull. L. wine.
Mumm. G.
Munch. F.
Mure. L. to wall.
Muse. L.
Musk. L.
Must. L.
Must. F.
Mute. L.
Mute. F.
Nave. L.
Nard. G.
Neat. F.
Nep. L. a plant.
Nerve. L.
Net. F.
Niche. F.
Niece. F.
Node. L.
Noise. F.
Nome. G.
Noose. F.
Note. L.

Noun. L.
Nude. L.
Null. L.
Nun. I.
Nurse. F.
Nymph. G,
Ode. G.
Orb. L.
Orc. L.
Ounce. L.
Oust. F.
Pace. F.
Pact. L.
Page. L.
Page. F.
Pail. G. S.
Paint. F.
Pair. L.
Pale. L. (n.)
Pale. L. (a.)
Pall. L.* a cloth.
Palm. L.
Pane. L.
Pant. F.
Pap. L.* a teat.
Pap. L.* soft food
Par. L. equality.
Pard. L.
Pare. F.
Parse. L.
Part. L.
Pasch. G.
Pass. L.*
Paste. F.
Paunch. L.
Pause. G.
Pave. L.
Pawn (chess) S.
Pay. F.
Peace. L.
Peach. F.
Peel. F.
Peep. L.
Peer. F.
Peg. G.
Pelt. L. (n.)
Pelt. L. (v.)
Pen. L.
Perch. F. a measure.
Perch. L. a fish.
Phlegm. G.
Phrase. G.
Pie. F.
Piece. F.
Pierce. F.
Pike. F.
Pile. L. hair.
Pile. L. a heap.

Pile. L. an arrowhead.
Pill. L. (n.)
Pinch. F.
Pine. L. a tree.
Pint. S.
Pip. L.*
Pique. F.
Pix. L.
Place. F.
Plague. G.
Plain. L.
Plait. L.
Plan. L.
Planch. F.
Plane. L.
Plank. F.
Plant. L.
Plasm. G.
Plat. G.
Plate. S. G.
Plea. F.
Plead. F. L.
Please. F.
Pledge. F.
Plinth. G.
Plumb. F.
Plume. L.
Plunge. F.
Poach. F.
Point. L.
Poise. F.
Pole. G.
Pomp. G.
Poop. L.
Poor. F.
Pope. L.
Porch. F.
Pore. G.
Pork. L.
Port. L. mien.
Port. L. a gate.
Port. L. a harbour
Post. L.
Pot. F.
Potch. F.
Poule. F.
Poult. L.
Pounce. F. L. powder.
Pounce. S. talon
Pout. F.
Praise. F.
Pray. F.
Preach. F.
Press. L.
Prest. F.
Prey. F.
Price. F.*
Prime. L.

Prince. F.
Print. F.
Prize. F.
Prompt. L.
Prone. L.
Prose. L.
Prow. F. *(nautical.)*
Prow. F. *valiant*
Prude. F.
Prune. L.
Psalm. G.
Pule. F.
Pulp. L.
Pulse. L.
Pump. F.
Punch. I.
Pure. L.
Purge. L.
Purl. I.
Purse. F.
Pus. L.
Push. F.
Pyre. G.
Quaff. F.
Quail. F. *a bird.*
Quaint. L.
Quart. F.
Quay. F.
Quest. F.
Quill. F.
Quilt. L.
Quince. F.
Quint. F.
Quire. G.
Quire. F. *sheets of paper.*
Quit. F.
Quite. F.
Quote. F.
Race. F. *lineage.*
Raft. L.
Rag. G.
Rage. F.
Ramp. F.
Range. F.
Rap. L.
Rape. L.
Rape. L. *a plant.*
Rare. F.
Rase. L.
Rate. L.
Ray. F. *light.*
Ray. L. *a fish.*
Raze. L. *a root of ginger.*
Raze. L.
Rear. L.
Reign. F.
Rein. F.

Reins. L. *kidneys.*
Rest. L. as ' *the rest of,' &c.*
Rheum. G.
Rhomb. G.
Rice. G.
Rill. L.
Risk. F.
Rite. F.
Roan. F.
Roast. F.
Robe. F.
Rock. F.
Roist. F.
Roll. F.
Rook. F.
Rose. F.
Rouge. F.
Round. F.
Rout. F.
Route. F.
Rude. F.
Rule. F.
Ruse. F.
Rut. F. *the track of a wheel.*
Sack. F. *sweet wine.*
Safe. F.
Sage. F.
Sage. F. *a plant.*
Saint. F.
Salt. L. *a leap.*
Sane. F.
Sans. F.
Sap. F. *(verb.)*
Sash. F.
Sate. L.
Save. F.
Say. F.
Scald. F.
Scale. L.
Scan. L.
Scar. G.
Scarce. F. L.
Scarf. F.
Scene. G.
Scent. L.
Scheme. G.
School. L.
Scoff. G.
Scope. G.
Scot. F. *tax, share.*
Scout. F.
Scourge. F.
Screen. F.
Scribe. F.
Scroll. F.
Scroyle. F.

Seal. L. *a stamp.*
Search. F.
Seat. L.
Sect. L.
See. L. *(noun.)*
Scel. F.
Seize. F.
Sell. L.
Sense. L.
Serf. F.
Serge. F.
Serve. F.
Sex. F.
Sheet. F. *(nautical.)*
Shock. F.
Shot. F.
Sice. L. *(at dice.)*
Siege. F.
Sign. F.
Sine. L.
Sir. F.
Sirc. F.
Site. L.
Skain.—Skein. F.
Sketch. I.
Slate. F.
Sneer. L.
Soar. F.
Sock. L.
Soil. L. *earth.*
Sole. F. *(noun.)*
Sole. F. *(adj.)*
Solve. L.
Sore. F.
Sort. L.
Sound. L.
Source. L.
Souse. L.
Space. L.
Sparse. L.
Sphere. G.
Sphinx. G.
Spice. F. L.
Spike. L.
Spine. L.
Spire. L.
Spiss. L.
Spleen. G.
Spoil. L.
Sponge. L.
Spouse. L.
Spume. L.
Spurge. L.
Spy. F.
Squad. F.
Square. L.
Squill. L.
Staff. F. *(military.)*

Stage. F.
Stanch. F.
State. L.
Stay. F.
Stew. F.
Still. L. *distillation.*
Stole. L.
Strain. L.
Strait. L.
Strange. F.
Strict. L.
Style. L.
Sue. F.
Suit. F.
Sum. L.
Surd. L.
Sure. F.
Surge. L.
Sylph. G.
Syrt. L.
Tack. F.
Tact. L.
Taint. L.
Tan. F.
Tang. G.
Tank. F.
Tap. F.
Tare. L.
Tart, F.
Task. F.
Taste. F.
Taunt. F.
Tax. F.
Tell. L.
Tempt. L.
Tench. L.
Tend. L.
Tense. L. *in grammar.*
Tense. L. *tight.*
Tent. L.
Terse. L.
Test. L.
Text. L.
Theme. G.
Threne. G.
Throb. G.
Throne. L.
Thrust. L.
Thyme. G.
Tick. F.
Tierce. F.
Tiff. F.
Tinge. L.
Toast. L.
Toil. L.
Tomb. G.
Tome. G.
Tone. L.

Tope. F.	Trine. L.	Vail. F.	Verse. L.
Torch. F.	Tripe. F.	Vain. L.	Vert. L.
Tort. F.	Trist. L.	Vale. L.	Vest. F.
Touch. F.	Trite. L.	Valve. L.	Vetch. L.
Tour. F.	Troop. F.	Van. F.	Vex. L.
Trace. L.	Trope. G.	Vase. L.	Vice. L.
Track. L.	Trot. F.	Vast. L.	Vice. F. *a presa*
Tract. L.	Trounce. F.	Vault. L. (*n.*)	View. F.
Trade. L.	Truce. F.	Vault. L. (*v.*)	Vile. L.
Train. F.	Truck. F.	Vaunt. F. *to*	Vine. L.
Trait. F.	Truck. G.	*boast.*	Vogue. F.
Trance. L.	Trump. F.	Vaunt. F. *the first*	Voice. F.
Trap. F.	Trunk. L.	*dart.*	Void. L.
Trave, F.	Truss. F.	Veal. F.	Vote. F.
Tray. L.	Try. F.	Veer. F.	Vouch. L.
Treat. F.	Tube. L.	Veil. L.	Vow. F.
Trench. F.	Tuft. F.	Vein. L.	Wage. L.
Tress. F.	Tune. L.	Vend. L.	Wait. L.
Tret. L. (?)	Type. G.	Venge. L.	Wall. L.
Trey. F.	Urge. L.	Vent. L. (?)	Wince. L.
Tribe. L.	Urn. L.	Verb. L.	Zeal. G.
ᵀⁱⁱck. L.	Use. L.	Verge. L. (*n.*)	Zone. G. *

ransitive { Reflex
             Reciprocal
             Other forms

Intransitive

Incomplete

1. Place { Resting a place
           Motion to " "
           " from"

2. Time — (a) present, past, future
           (b) Duration & repetition

3. Degree, including adverbs of
           comparison

4. Belief & Disbelief

5. Cause & Effect

6. Manner or Quality.
   (largest class)